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## L REVIEW

DARY EDUCATION

JANUARY 1929

NUMBER 1

### Educational News and Editorial Comment

#### RURAL AND URBAN HIGH SCHOOLS

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There are today in the United States 21,700 high schools. Reports have been received from 17,711 of these, of which 3,960, or 22.4 per cent, are urban high schools; that is, they are located in centers of 2,500 or more population; 13,751, or 77.6 per cent, are rural—located in centers of 2,500 or less population.

In the 13,751 rural high schools in the United States there are only 1,079,086 children, or 28.8 per cent of the total high-school enrolment; in the 3,960 urban high schools there are 2,662,364 children, or 71.2 per cent of the total enrolment.

Rural communities are making heroic efforts to provide high schools for their children, but thus far their achievements in this direction have been less successful than those of urban centers. In point of numbers, more than three out of every four high schools are located in rural areas; in attendance these schools reach fewer than three out of every ten children now receiving a high-school education in the public schools. These figures become startling when it is considered that, while 52.8 per cent, or more than one-half, of all the children between fifteen and eighteen years of age live in rural territory, only 25.7 per

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# THE SCHOOL REVIEW

A JOURNAL OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

VOLUME XXXVII

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cent of them are enrolled in rural high schools; whereas 71.1 per cent of the children of this age group living in urban centers are enrolled in urban high schools. It is clear that rural high schools either are inaccessible or do not offer opportunities sufficient to attract a high percentage of rural children of high-school age.

Generally speaking, the school term is much shorter in rural schools than in urban schools. While 10.9 per cent of the pupils who attend rural high schools are limited to a school term of 160 days or less, only 0.3 per cent of the urban pupils attend such short-term schools. Of all high-school pupils enrolled in schools having a term more than 180 days in length, 92.4 per cent attend urban schools; only 7.6 per cent of them enjoy so long a term in rural schools.

It is estimated that more than eighteen of every one hundred children fifteen to eighteen years of age in urban areas continue their education beyond the high school, while only 7.2 of every one hundred children of the same age group in rural areas seek further education preparation.

To differentiate its curriculum to fit the needs of its pupils is one of the great problems of the rural high school. The cost of differentiation comparable to that obtaining in the larger high schools would be prohibitive. This is a natural consequence owing to the small attendance in the rural high school.

As public secondary education has developed and is now functioning, the urban high school child has a much better chance to go to high school, and, when he does go, he enjoys an educational opportunity much better adjusted to life's needs than that now available in the rural schools.

#### THE EDUCATIONAL RECORDS BUREAU

There has been organized with the aid of a subvention granted by the Carnegie Foundation an examining bureau which is prepared to give advice to institutions and to individuals regarding the fitness of any pupil for entrance upon a college curriculum. The bureau is known as the Educational Records Bureau and is located at 420 West 119th Street, New York City. It is somewhat like the English examining boards in its character and purposes. It has been in operation somewhat less than a year, and it reports itself as "overwhelmed" with demands for its services. Since the bureau promises to be of importance as an agency for determining the acceptance of pupils by colleges, the full statement regarding its organization and operations is quoted as follows:

The organizing of the Educational Records Bureau is one result of a conference on college entrance held in the offices of the Carnegie Foundation in February, 1927. There were present at this meeting representatives of the admission committees of Harvard, Yale, Columbia, Princeton, and the University

of Pennsylvania, representatives of a dozen college-preparatory schools, Dr. W. S. Learned, of the Foundation, and Mr. James Rule, of the Pennsylvania State Department of Education.

Among the interesting motions passed by this conference was one which advocated the establishment of an independent impersonal organization which, by means of carefully selected tests of various kinds, would aid schools and parents in deciding as to a pupil's capacity for a college career well in advance of graduation from secondary school. It was suggested that this organization might recommend and mark the tests and report upon them to the schools concerned.

Following this suggestion there was held another meeting, at the Carnegie Foundation, of experts interested in psychological and prognostic tests. Those present were Dr. Carl C. Brigham, of Princeton, Dr. W. S. Learned, of the Foundation, Dr. John Lester, of the Hill School and of the Secondary School Examination Board, Dr. Arthur S. Otis, Professor Herbert A. Toops, of Ohio State University, Professor Ben D. Wood, of Columbia University, and Charles K. Taylor. This committee decided for the time being to recommend as prognostic tests the Ohio State University Test No. 10 and the Otis Advanced Self-administering Test. It was also decided to use for such side lights as they might furnish the Fundamental Qualities Tests arranged by C. K. Taylor. It was strongly recommended that there should be organized a test-selecting, marking, and reporting bureau such as was recommended by the first meeting.

The idea of an educational service bureau was subsequently discussed by many interested school people. Many thought that, besides caring for prognostic tests and other intelligence and aptitude tests, such an agency might very well become a center from which scholastic tests could be sent from time to time to the associated schools, by means of which the latter could obtain independent and comparable marks for the work of the children concerned, could compare their work with that of the whole group of schools, and could obtain data that might be very valuable for college-entrance purposes and for educational guidance in general.

This general plan seemed very worth while to the trustees of a fund established for such matters, and they very generously provided for the establishment of such an organization as has been described. As a result, the Educational Records Bureau opened and began its work on October 1, 1927.

When many people begin thinking along the same lines, constructive developments often become not only possible but almost inevitable. Undoubtedly many have thought of the possibilities of a kind of central "clearing-house" not only for the making and keeping of educational records through the school years but for the obtaining and distributing of important educational information. For instance, about fifteen years ago Horace D. Taft, of the Taft School, wrote for the *Churchman* an article advocating the establishing of an organization very much like the Educational Records Bureau. Let us quote from his article:

"Would it not be possible to have a central committee hold examinations every year which would serve as a test of the work of the schools? Let the examinations cover the work done in the three or four years below the high school as well as in the high school itself. Let the papers be sent to the committee for marking—let the questions and the scale of marking represent the standards of the best American schools."

Mr. Taft then made clear how useful such a bureau might be to individual parents scattered throughout the country who, by its aid, might be able to learn a pupil's real scholastic standing and thus be able to bring pressure on schools that perhaps were doing mediocre work—without realizing it. The great value of such a bureau, of course, would be in the services it could render directly to schools. To continue with Mr. Taft's article:

"The result of the plan would be so valuable as to justify great expense, but this would be very small. I can think of no other expense so small which would promise so great a return. The existence of any standard in American education would be of immense value."

By this, of course, Mr. Taft did not suggest that schools should be made to fit any particular standard but, which is very different, that there should be standards with which schools could compare their work.

#### SERVICES OF THE BUREAU

*Prognostic tests.*—As it was specifically moved in the February meeting mentioned that the proposed Bureau should select and mark prognostic tests, this service has been provided for. From time to time a committee will consider such tests as have been developed and will choose those which seem to have prognostic value. Schools desiring the use of such tests may obtain them from the Bureau at retail cost. The schools will then administer the tests and return them to the Bureau, where they will be marked. It is expected that school records will be sent with the tests so that recommendations as to college fitness may be based both on the tests and upon the school record. The results will then be sent to the schools concerned and a record kept by the Bureau. It was the recommendation by the February meeting that prognostic testing should come not later than the second high-school year. It should be said that Dr. John Lester, of the Hill School and of the Research Bureau of the Secondary School Examination Board, is secretary of the committee on examinations and tests.

*Intelligence tests in general.*—Besides this group of tests the Bureau is prepared to recommend and mark and report upon tests for the other school grades. It is not necessary, perhaps, that each child be given an intelligence test every year. But this should certainly be done at three significant stages—at about nine years (about the third grade), at about thirteen years (about the seventh grade), and at about fifteen or sixteen years. It may be as they develop that vocational tests could be given trial in the last two periods.

*Scholastic tests.*—Selecting, preparing (if necessary), distributing, marking,

and reporting upon scholastic tests may become by far the most important work of the Bureau. It is proposed that these tests be sent to the associated schools early in the spring, that they be prepared for classes down to and including the third grade, and that they be of the comprehensive "new type," planned to aid in gaining as thorough an idea as possible of a pupil's general knowledge of a subject. These tests will care for the usual school subjects. It is not suggested that every pupil be tested in the same subject every year but, rather, tested in a subject after a certain definite amount of ground has been covered. There is an increasing number of these "new-type" scholastic examinations being placed at the service of schools. Our committee on examinations and tests will select the most adequate of these and will prepare new ones when advisable. In this important work the committee confidently hopes for and expects the co-operation of the Secondary School Examination Board, with which it is allied, and of other research bureaus.

It would be the Bureau's work to mark and to report on the results of these tests directly to the schools, and these latter should find the results valuable for several reasons: first, the schools would gain a very fair idea of a pupil's real accomplishment; second, a school could compare its work with that of all the schools taking the same test without any specific school's record being known; and, third, a school might find these records valuable when college entrance is desired.

*The value of cumulative records.*—The Bureau will keep a cumulative record of the results of the testing of each child through that child's school career—a record of scholastic accomplishment and of such intelligence and aptitude tests as have been given that child. Records of such a nature kept during a child's progress through a primary school should be very significant to any secondary school that child may wish to enter. Furthermore, such records, kept through the school career to the end of the secondary school, might mean a great deal to college admissions committees, especially when this independently and impersonally made cumulative report on scholastic accomplishment would be accompanied by a complete, cumulative personal history furnished by the school itself. From such a compact array of data admissions committees should be able to gain very significant help in determining fitness of candidates for college entrance.

*The bulletin.*—From time to time the Bureau will prepare and send free to the associated schools bulletins describing educational matters of importance both to the schools and to the Bureau. In this manner all the associated schools may learn of any particular school's special achievement or of important achievements elsewhere.

*Conferences.*—As the Bureau will keep in close touch with many schools and colleges, it will be possible to get together groups of educators who are interested in similar educational developments and problems. The Bureau feels that the bringing about of such conferences should be a part of its essential work.



## SERVICE COSTS

It is the intention of the Bureau to keep the cost of its services as low as possible.

## Registration:

For registration with the Educational Records Bureau, per annum . . . \$15.00  
Registered schools only may use the services of the Bureau.

## Prognostic test:

For marking and reporting upon the three combined prognostic tests previously described, per capita . . . . . 1.25

## Other intelligence tests:

For one test, per capita . . . . . .75

For each additional test for the same individual . . . . . .50

(This does not include the Stanford Achievement Test, which is very long and whose marking takes much time. This and tests of similar length will be marked at \$1.00 each.)

## Scholastic tests:

For marking, reporting upon, and placing on the cumulative record of the described scholastic tests, for one test . . . . . .75

For each additional test for the same individual taken at the same time . . . . . .50

(This makes possible the giving of four scholastic tests per year at the low rate of \$2.25 per capita.)

Retail price of such test forms as desired will be sent on application.

## AN "INNER COLLEGE" AT HARVARD

Parts of an article published by the *New York Times* are quoted as follows:

An anonymous gift of \$3,000,000 to Harvard to build and endow a group of dormitories, dining-halls, and common rooms, which will accommodate two hundred to three hundred students within the college and be operated on a basis similar to the colleges of Oxford and Cambridge universities, was announced by President A. Lawrence Lowell. . . .

A large dormitory, accommodating three hundred students, will be erected, probably on land near the present Harvard Freshman dormitories. The new dormitory will have complete living equipment in the form of dining-rooms, common rooms, and individual suites.

The student personnel will include members of all four classes, picked as far as is feasible from all walks of undergraduate life, such as athletes, honor students, and representatives of various extra-curriculum activities. A staff of tutors and resident instructors will also be housed in the dormitory.

The students in the new "college" will attend classes as do the other undergraduates, but in the development there will be stressed particularly their mutual social contacts, otherwise often lost in large universities.



President Lowell in explanation of the plan said in part:

"For a generation there has been much discussion of the policy of breaking up our large colleges into smaller social units in order to secure at the same time the advantages of the large and small institutions. Many men here have felt that this must come if we are to confer the greatest benefit upon our undergraduates. The very thoughtful report of the Student Council Committee on Education, published in 1926, advocated strongly such a plan and may be taken to express the opinion of undergraduates who have given grave consideration to the problems of life in the college.

"To the officers of the faculty, the method of approach has seemed to lie in the creation of a residential group or house of students capable of strong scholarly interest and achievement, associated with members of the instructing staff, including their tutors, and if possible with research fellows in different lines of work. . . .

"The plan involves no change in the method of teaching, and, in fact, our tutorial system lends itself to it perfectly. The men will attend college courses like other students, but the tutoring will normally be done in the house. Nor does the plan affect the functions of Harvard College and the faculty of arts and sciences in education as the great undergraduate center and the authority for granting degrees and determining the qualifications therefor.

"The students in the house are not to be selected from those concentrating in particular subjects. On the contrary, it is of the essence of the plan that they should be interested, and really interested, in different things that the life and talk may be broadly stimulating.

"While we may derive much that is valuable from the example of Oxford and Cambridge, where a similar system has proved successful, mere imitation would be fatal. American conditions and traditions are not the same as those of the English universities, and to urge that we should do anything because it is done in a college there is futile. The general plan is good and seems capable of adaptation to our needs, with a wisdom that grasps the object to be sought and perceives the means that will promote it here."

#### SHORTENING THE SCHOOL CURRICULUM

The *Christian Science Monitor* published the following statement.

Steps toward shortening Cleveland's school course from twelve years to ten will be started this year, it has been announced by Robinson G. Jones, superintendent of schools. This will reduce the time between the first grade and the last year of high school by two years.

The action is in line with the policy extensively discussed at the last convention of the National Education Association and in other educational organizations. Cleveland's step in that direction makes it one of the first cities in the country to try the experiment. It will probably require several years to make the change.

## LIBRARIES AND SCHOOLS

The steady increase in library facilities in American schools is sufficiently impressive to have attracted the attention of a foreign visitor, as is shown by the following quotation from the London *Times Educational Supplement*.

Interesting comparisons between the school-library systems of England and the United States were made at the concluding session of the Library Association Conference at Blackpool last week.

Mr. E. G. Savage, an inspector of the Board of Education, said that in a recent tour of the United States he was impressed by the deliberate way in which the Americans were teaching their young people how to use books. In America the doctrine was held that after leaving school the average citizen would have mainly to rely on books for his further education. Certain teachers were set apart, even in many poor schools, to instruct the scholars in the use of books. Their function was often characteristically expressed as "selling a library." No resource of modern advertising was neglected. The result was that Americans in daily life did support their local libraries and used them well. In New York State every school had a trained librarian on its staff. In the state of Indiana every school was required to spend 7s. per annum per scholar on books until it had a collection in the proportion of ten books per pupil. Some of the schools had collections of 10,000 books.

He had also been much struck by the co-operation that existed in America between the secondary schools and the public libraries. For example, in the city of Cleveland there were four trained school librarians all belonging to the town library. The effect of that on the youth of Cleveland was very marked indeed, and the school library was extremely popular. The people of Cleveland voted money for library purposes where they would not vote it for other things. If we in this country had that sort of co-operation, we should do much better with the limited resources at our command.

English conditions, especially financial considerations, made it difficult to go so far as America had gone, but there was definitely room for greater organization of our library services within schools. Most of the public schools had a collection of books fittingly housed and worthy to be called a library, but the state of affairs in grant-aided secondary schools was generally much less satisfactory. Our next move must be in the direction of training teachers to train children how to use books; in other words, there should be a summer course for teachers who are interested in librarianship.

## SCHOOLS FOR INDUSTRY

The following statement was published by the *United States Daily*.

A study of secondary technical schools to determine whether there are enough schools to meet the needs of industry and whether the schools now

functioning have developed the most suitable curriculum has been undertaken by a special committee of the Society for the Promotion of Engineering Education, working under the Board of Investigation on the Study of Non-Collegiate Technical Education, according to Charles R. Allen, editor and educational consultant of the Federal Board for Vocational Education and its representative on the advisory board established in connection with this study.

At the first meeting of the advisory board, attended by Mr. Allen, and which was held at the Long Island home of Frederick B. Pratt, the whole question was considered and the program for study outlined. The full text of Mr. Allen's statement follows:

"At the meeting of the advisory board it was stated that it is well known that there are certain positions in industry of a secondary technical character which college-trained men are not satisfied to fill permanently. These positions would not be rated as engineering positions, but they demand a considerable amount of technical knowledge and the assumption of considerable responsibility.

"At present the chief source of supply for these positions is promotion from lower positions within the organization; hence the mastery of these jobs demands the acquisition of additional technical knowledge and training. The general purpose of the study which is now under way is to determine the degree to which there would be need in this country for institutions which will give this type of educational training and to determine how far such institutions exist and the degree to which their programs might be modified or changed to advantage.

"There are now in this country a few institutions which have been preparing men who fit very well into this type of position. These institutions occupy an intermediate position between the trade school and the engineering college and correspond somewhat to the middle technical schools which operated under the new German educational plan. Funds have been provided for a study of the whole problem.

"At the meeting of the advisory committee, W. E. Wickenden, director of investigation, outlined the program. As a part of the investigation, Mr. Wickenden is leaving this country shortly to secure certain information with regard to schools of a similar type in Europe.

"One of the ways through which individuals who are desirous of securing promotion into these intermediate technical positions can secure additional training of a vocational character has been through evening schools for adults operated in all the states under the administration of the state boards for vocational education.

"Consequently, the Federal Board for Vocational Education has an interest in this study and therefore appreciates the courtesy of Frederic B. Pratt, chairman of the advisory committee, in inviting a member of the staff to be a member of the advisory committee. Another meeting of the advisory board will probably be called when Mr. Wickenden returns from Europe.

"Organizations represented on the advisory board are the Bureau of Education, the Federal Board for Vocational Education, engineering colleges, non-collegiate schools of engineering, schools of industrial arts, corporation schools, extension and correspondence schools, technical secondary schools, and national associations of industries."

Statements of like import have been appearing of late in increasing numbers in the public press. Several years ago the same men who now appear to be interested in promoting separate technical schools were the leaders in the movement which resulted in the creation of the Federal Board for Vocational Education. It behooves school people to note that the campaign is once more being vigorously waged to create, if possible, a group of schools distinct from the ordinary high schools for the training of certain groups of adolescents. The significance of this campaign should be fully realized. It is the firm conviction of the present writer that a group of technical schools which lack the facilities for general education would be utterly out of harmony with the ideals of American civilization.

#### SHALL AMERICA HAVE TWO SEPARATE SCHOOL SYSTEMS?

In an article published in the October, 1928, issue of *Nation's Business*, C. R. Mann, director of the American Council on Education, makes a vigorous statement of the dangers which threaten American schools because of the federal subventions which largely control industrial education. He writes in part as follows:

The establishment of the Federal Board for Vocational Education is typical of another strange habit of the American people. Some twenty-five years ago a group of industrial-training enthusiasts started determined propaganda to introduce vocational training into public education.

First they tried to induce the states to do it. A bill was introduced in the Illinois legislature to authorize communities to establish alongside the regular board of education an independent board of vocational education. Each of these two boards was to operate an independent school system, one academic, the other practical. The taxpayers were to support both and could send their children to whichever they liked best.

This dual-system school bill never became a law. It struggled for some years but was finally killed. It violated fundamental instincts of the American people concerning equality of opportunity and class distinction. The episode did, however, limber up the regular school system. Since then vocational training has made steady progress as a coherent part of the liberal training furnished by the public schools. And the end is not yet.

Having lost the Illinois case, the industrial-training enthusiasts, nothing daunted, conceived a bigger and better plan. Illinois taught them what an interminable job it would be to win the several states, which legally control education, to their project. Why not capture Congress?

If Congress would give them money to distribute to schools that would follow instructions for the sake of getting cash, all would be well. Congress capitulated. By placing these 50-50 subsidies in charge of offices that have no connection with the Bureau of Education, Congress has actually created in the federal organization the very dual system of public education which Illinois and several other states repudiated.

This situation may well disturb those who fear federal control of public education. For many years they have strenuously fought every effort to increase appropriations for the Bureau of Education beyond its allotted \$300,000. They have also opposed a federal department of education with less than \$2,000,000 to spend on research and information services.

Meanwhile Congress established federal control over public vocational training to the extent of \$35,520,000 through 50-50 subsidies and has increased and will probably further increase this amount.

This is not intended in criticism of the work done by these federal bureaus. Much of it is excellent and of value. It is the principle on which it has been established by Congress that is here called in question. Does the good gained justify the loss in local initiative, self-reliance, and sense of responsibility that inevitably accompanies federal control? Does this kind of federal paternalism develop citizens who are capable of self-government?

#### TWO STUDIES OF THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

The *University of Iowa Service Bulletin* has published an article by Ralph Abner Fritz which reports a study of the junior high schools in eighty-six of the smaller cities in Iowa and in six large cities, five in Iowa and one in a neighboring state. The questions which the study attempted to answer are as follows: Does the junior high school effect economy of time? Does the junior high school bridge the gap between the elementary school and the high school? The conclusions are as follows:

Progress rate is not dependent upon the type of school organization alone but is influenced by such other factors as the attitude of the superintendent, principals, and teachers toward promotion; by the number of pupils cared for in special classes; by the ages (retardation) of pupils; and by the health of pupils. These factors might unduly influence the progress rate of a small group of pupils over a short period of time, but it is believed that their influences would be canceled in this study, which includes records of large groups of pupils over several years.

According to the findings of this portion of the study, pupils do progress through Grades VII, VIII, and IX in less time in 6-3-3 schools than in 8-4 schools. The saving of time occurs in the half-grades VII B, IX B, and IX A.

According to the records studied, about three-fifths as many semesters were lost by pupils in Grade VII B in 6-3-3 schools as were lost by an equal number of pupils in 8-4 schools. Only one-half as many semesters were lost by pupils in Grades IX B and IX A in 6-3-3 schools as were lost by an equal number of pupils in 8-4 schools.

The low points in the progress rates for the junior high schools are in Grades VII A, IX B, and IX A, while the high point is VIII B. The low point in VII A may be due to the adjustments necessary upon entering a new building with its new conditions. The low points in Grade IX are in part due to the accumulation of subject failures during the entire junior high school period until enough failures are finally charged against a pupil to cause the loss of a semester of classification. Pupils also frequently drop out of school in Grade IX with a record of "incomplete."

Progress rates in Grades IX B and IX A were very much higher in one city since its schools have been organized on a 6-3-3 plan than they were while organized on an 8-4 plan.

If we think of the gap as the point between Grades VIII and IX, then the records show that the junior high school has done much to reduce this gap.

If we think of the gap as the point of entrance to senior high school, then it occurs between Grades IX and X in the 6-3-3 schools and between Grades VIII and IX in the 8-4 schools. In the 6-3-3 schools the progress rate in Grade X B is .115 lower than that in Grade IX A, which is evidence of a very large gap in these schools upon entrance to senior high school. It seems, then, that the gap which formerly occurred between Grades VIII and IX in the old 8-4 schools has not really been bridged by the newer 6-3-3 schools but has merely been postponed one year.

The State Education Department of New York has published a paper-covered book of 284 pages under the title *The Junior High School in New York State*. This book was prepared by George M. Wiley, assistant commissioner for secondary education, and Harrison H. Van Cott, supervisor of junior high schools. It makes no attempt to discuss the theory of the junior high school but describes what has been done in various school systems in different parts of the state. It includes a large number of brief articles prepared by principals and teachers describing the organization of the curriculum and of various phases of administration in their schools. The book



is an important addition to the available literature on junior high schools.

#### TRAINING OF TEACHERS IN JUNIOR COLLEGES

The success of the public junior colleges in California is due in no small measure to the superior training of the teachers in these institutions. Indeed, the high schools in that state have long operated under a state requirement that no one be employed to teach in these schools who has not completed at least a year of work beyond the Bachelor's degree. In some of the other states where public junior colleges have been organized less attention is given to the adequate training of members of the faculties. An article by Elise H. Martens published in the October, 1928, issue of the *California Quarterly of Secondary Education* presents the facts regarding the training and experience of teachers in junior colleges in California. This article should be read by all who are interested in establishing proper standards for junior colleges. The summary is as follows:

1. Approximately 7 per cent of the teachers in our California junior colleges hold the Doctor's degree; 46 per cent hold the Master's degree as their highest achievement, whereas 90 per cent have at least the Bachelor's degree. The remaining 10 per cent are without any degree.

2. The teachers who are without degrees come largely from the departments of art, commerce, music, physical education, and shop. In these departments specialized training which is equivalent to that required for a degree may be received at institutions which do not grant degrees.

3. The institutions from which degrees have been received are many and widely scattered throughout the United States. They include also universities in Canada and Europe. This makes for diversity in training and wholesome variety of influence.

4. The median number of years of educational experience of junior-college teachers is ten. The range of experience extends from less than two years to forty.

5. Almost 34 per cent of junior-college teachers have had previous teaching experience in colleges or universities, while 17 per cent have taught in elementary schools. There is a breadth of experience throughout which is conducive toward a big understanding of our whole educational system.

6. Previous experience has been geographically distributed through almost every state of the Union, into our territorial possessions, and through thirteen foreign countries. This is again an evidence of diversity and richness of educational contacts.

7. The whole study shows a high caliber of instructional staff in the junior

colleges of California, a continuous professional interest which inspires to further study in the field of choice, and a wide educational experience which makes possible more complete understanding and better teaching.

THE LOAD CARRIED BY BEGINNING TEACHERS  
IN OHIO HIGH SCHOOLS

Earl W. Anderson, of the Ohio State University, reports in the *Educational Research Bulletin* published by the Ohio State University a study of the programs of sixty graduates of that institution who were in December, 1927, in their first year of high-school teaching. Especially significant is the section of this report which deals with the extra-classroom duties of these teachers. There is much ground for the belief that schools often overlook the distractions which arise from excessive social demands on teachers. Such demands must inevitably interfere with proper preparation for class exercises. A part of Mr. Anderson's report is as follows:

Besides teaching a wide distribution of subjects, some rather foreign to them, most of last year's graduates had specific extra-curriculum duties which required time outside of regular school hours. Eleven of the nineteen men and eight of the forty-one women coached athletics. Forty-nine of the sixty had some extra-curriculum duties. Almost one-half had two or more of such assignments. Quite a variety of activities were listed. These, in the frequency of occurrence, appear in the following table:

Type of Activity	Number of Teachers
Coaching athletics.....	19
Men.....	11
Women.....	8
Club sponsors.....	18
Not specified.....	5
Home economics.....	5
Literary.....	1
Spanish.....	1
Latin.....	1
French.....	1
Music.....	1
Hiking.....	1
Hi-Y.....	1
Valet.....	1
Class advisers.....	15
Gymnasium work.....	9
Class plays.....	8



Type of Activity	Number of Teachers
Dramatics.....	3
Cafeteria manager.....	3
Chaperon (parties).....	2
Debating.....	2
Girl Reserves.....	2
Music.....	2
Faculty manager of athletics.....	2
School paper.....	1
P.T.A. program.....	1
Y.M.C.A. leader.....	1
Lunchroom supervision.....	1

No question was asked about the preparation which these sponsors had for the extra-curriculum activities they supervised. With the wide diversity of activities listed it is likely that many sponsors have had no training whatever to aid them. Teacher-training institutions might well check on their courses designed to help teachers direct extra-curriculum work.

It is apparent from the programs of these sixty beginning teachers that teaching for them has been a heavy load. The waking hours of the day were probably not sufficient to review known fields, study ahead of the classes in strange material, spend six hours a day directly in contact with pupils, answer demands for time and guidance in class work and in extra-curriculum activities, prepare next day's lessons, and grade papers.

## THE SECONDARY PERIOD AND THE UNIVERSITY

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In looking over the documents relating to the beginnings of our schools, higher and lower, one frequently encounters some such phrase as "I would have." The founder was engaged in the ever agreeable task of working out an educational scheme. Later on, committees do the work, much as does a congressional committee in the process of formulating a new tariff schedule; that is, the "interests" are consulted, in this case the academic interests. Now and then a "movement" emerges. The difference between a movement and a committee or founder is in the principle that the movement is likely to be a random adaptive response characteristic of an organism in evolution. All this is well enough in the easy-going days of a society which lives in a world still possessed of abundant unoccupied land, where the restless and untutored and unemployed can still be encouraged to emigrate. A nation which has learned that it must apply the processes of fact-finding and analysis even to commerce and industry is not likely to be forever patient with opportunism as applied to the development of schools and universities, especially when the tax bill is increasing and the endowment collector is abroad in the land.

The fundamental set of facts before us today is connected with the circumstance that the younger generation in America is going to school to an extent quite unparalleled in the world's history. Whether or not these youth are seeking education we are not told. At any rate they are going to school. More than 80 per cent of the young people from five to eighteen years of age in Continental United States are now enrolled. The high-school enrolment for the same area is about 15 per cent of the total elementary- and high-school enrolment, and the saturation point is probably not above 30 per cent. In other words, the high-school enrolment is about one-half as large as it could possibly be on the present population basis,

and it is still increasing. The flow into the four-year college has just begun. In terms of percentages, the college enrolment is about 2 per cent of the aggregate, with the saturation point at not more than 22 per cent, under present conditions of mortality in the age groups represented. The college has gained fourfold on the total enrolment in thirty years. Some may be skeptical with regard to the statement that the flow into college has just begun. We shall see. Meantime let us remember that there are thousands of ill-adapted high-school buildings in the United States resting on cornerstones with dates ranging from 1890 to 1916, which are monuments to the ineradicable delusion of boards of education that high schools could never by any possibility be materially larger than they always had been.

How did all this come to pass? Is it likely to be a continuing order of things?

The break in the curve of increasing high-school enrolment is so clear that we can say with a great deal of confidence that things began to be different in 1900 or at least in the decade ending in 1900. Apparently there had come into being a new set of economic conditions, the inevitable consequence of which was the increased load on the schools, which still constitutes our most serious problem. In 1890 the Bureau of the Census reported "no more frontier." The new life in the South was well established, at least so far as general direction was concerned. Child labor had ceased to be required for sheer subsistence. Most important of all, the new machinery used in major enterprises of construction, particularly in the building trades, began to gain rapidly in release of man-hours upon the contrary process of absorption of man-hours in industrial expansion. The gasoline engine and the almost indefinite possibilities in electric apparatus had still more to promise.

The interaction of labor release and school attendance is a complex, in which it is not always easy to say which is cause and which is effect. The net outcome is nevertheless a sort of cashing-in on the results of the later Industrial Revolution and machine production so that both infancy and old age are prolonged. The children go to school, and the aged are more and more retired on a competency. The economic consequence is that both the bargaining power and

the purchasing power of wage-earners are enhanced to an unprecedented degree. In round numbers, four and one-half million children and young people are in school today who under the conditions prevailing in 1890 would have been competing in the labor market. The total number of persons gainfully employed in 1920 was roughly forty-one and one-half million. In 1890 more than two and one-half millions were competitors for employment who today would be in school or college. John goes to school because he cannot get a job, and Jane goes to school too because John cannot get a job. Current economic history is following a course in America different from the European trend, not merely because of our natural advantages but because of our free schools. Business depression here always tends to increase school enrolment because father has no tuition bill to pay. A sudden expansion in business activity, such as occurred during the war, tends to cut down enrolment.

Let us glance backward into the conditions under which our present elementary school, high school, and four-year college developed.

Statistics of enrolment were not regularly collected prior to 1870, but there exist historical scraps out of which we can picture conditions as far back as the thirties. There was apparently no great change in the enrolment in relation to the population down to about 1890. It is altogether probable that the ratio which high-school and college enrolment bore to total enrolment did not change materially throughout the nineteenth century. Indeed, it may have been greater in the early years of the century. Down to a period well within the recollection of people who are still young, the steady expectation was that, of every 200 children and young people in school, 196 would be in the elementary school, 3 in the high school, and 1 in college. These figures are, of course, for the United States as a whole, although the figures for any state or, indeed, for most local communities would be of much the same order. Again, economic conditions lay at the bottom: children were required in industry and on the farm. It is significant that, despite agitation for the control of child labor dating from the twenties, the first full-fledged child-labor act appeared in the Massachusetts legislation of 1898, and the movement did not culminate until 1913, the year of most extensive law-making. Thus, social conditions tended to make people think

of the high school and the college as being separable from the elementary school, and the accidents of origin made the first two separable from each other. The term "common school" meant the elementary school, because the education of well over 90 per cent of the people ended somewhere below the level of what is now the ninth grade. A discontinuous school system of three stages was natural if not inevitable. But the high school is about as much a part of the common school today as were the upper grades of the elementary school in 1900, and the early part of the four-year college is rapidly tending in the same direction.

I have no fear of overemphasizing the principle that this accepted discontinuity in schools is the parent of an ideology by which school administration has been hagridden down to our own time despite the vision and teaching of great university executives, such as Eliot and Harper. Like all such outworn systems, this discontinuous system has taken on numerous ridiculous characteristics in its old age. Purely opportunistic in origin, it worked well enough when high-school and college students were a highly selected group and so few in numbers as to make little difference in the social effect of education. In an utterly new set of conditions, it has become an obsolete structure, to which it is hopelessly attempted to make function conform.

Perhaps the most absurd consequence is that it has induced administrative thinking to center upon time-to-be-spent instead of learning-to-be-acquired. The elementary school is either six years or eight years. If the pupil's natural gait is faster or slower than that implies, we can hold him back or double-promote him, so that in the end his elementary education—whatever that may be—can be expressed in terms of the time required by the average pupil. In high school or college, an elaborate system of educational currency in the form of credits is devised so that again we can sanctify the time of the pupil's maturity in terms of four years of high school or college. This type of thinking again determines the definition of both the secondary school and the university. What is the secondary school? Well, it is the four or six years after the elementary school. What is the elementary school? Why, it is the first six or eight years. What is the university? It is the school next beyond

the twelve-year sequence of years. What have years to do with the matter? Obviously, we can do no constructive thinking in any such terms.

It is perhaps not surprising that the cake of custom which has been hardening for a century has betrayed people into looking upon our discontinuous series of schools as something inherent in Nature's great plan. If the individual does not fit, then there is something wrong with the individual. The school structure is the reference plane. This family stock has no chromosomes for high school; this one has them for high school but not for college. It must be so, for we remember that in our childhood only two persons in every hundred were in high school. Perhaps never in history was the man of the hour more acceptable than was Alfred Binet and his studies in feeble-mindedness at the beginning of the period of expansion which we are discussing. Speculative necessity has seldom experienced such a happy adjustment of demand and supply as was presented by the problem of the enrolment on the one hand and intelligence tests and the dogma of fixed inherent ability on the other.

Let us return to our fundamental facts of economics and enrolment. The rising generation has thrust itself into and overflowed the old middle-class high school; it is swamping the old college. Father votes, and most of the funds are tax money. Further, while there may be and probably will be irregularities in the growth curve, the process must go on, for it is an integral part of the structure of modern society in America. The schools exist for the service of society, and in their turn they have become part of the defenses of the civil state—defense against the critical menace of ignorance in a highly complex community. Whether or not they succeed in performing that service and in thus justifying themselves depends not on anybody's scheme or plan, not on the assumptions of Europe worshipers nor on the cynicism of smart Aleck, but on the success with which those who are in control of the schools interpret the situation and adjust the schools in function and structure, in teaching and curriculum, to the world in which they exist. That is a scientific problem pure and simple.

My thesis, then, is that the first and most important step in adjustment is an escape from the methods of administrative thinking



which grew out of nineteenth-century conditions. The most important term in that thinking is "preparation." The first grade prepares for the second; the seventh grade, for the eighth; the elementary school, for the high school; the high school, for the college. The school grades and the several schools themselves have thereby become the learning products. The maturing process in the individual pupil is forgotten save as it is referred to these structural stereotypes as datum lines. For many years students of the problem here and there have called attention to the inherent absurdity of the situation, and, so far as I know, they have not seriously been disputed in principle. But so long as the present type of framework persists, our practical thinking will conform to that framework, not to reality.

The redefinition of the secondary school—or, if you prefer, the secondary period—in terms of function seems to be the key to the whole problem.

In the search for a definition of an obviously separable school, one which had come into existence quite independently of any process of systematic analysis, the term "secondary" was seized upon and attached to the old four-year high school mainly because in 1892 it was confusing to be obliged to say "high schools and academies"; and then, since it was observed that the traditional high-school years roughly correspond to what is sometimes called the "adolescent period," the secondary school came to be defined as the school of adolescence. If some medical writer had succeeded in captivating the public with a volume on the eruption of the permanent teeth, terminating in the appearance of the third molar, as acutely as did G. Stanley Hall with *Adolescence*, then we might perhaps have had a definition for one of our schools in terms of dentition. There are two good reasons why the adolescence definition will not work.

In the first place, adolescence is a vexatious variable. Even if extreme instances are disregarded, the range of onset covers a period of several years in different entirely normal individuals. To extend the old high school downward two years and upward two years in an attempt to include early and late pubescents is to reduce the definition itself to an absurdity.

In the second place, adolescence is not sufficient ground for the

definition of a separable school. It is related to a physical condition which precipitates new emotional stresses, but, as such, it creates problems in the management of individual pupils and not problems in school organization. Such personnel problems may be most numerous during the adolescent period, but they are not peculiar to it. Similar problems appear in the cases of nervous young children and neurotic graduate students.

"Secondary" implies "primary," and the two words become useful as terms in administrative thinking provided they can be related to school processes which are in clear necessity distinct in themselves. This clear line of cleavage we find at the point at which the young child has acquired the primary learnings of civilization that enable him to learn from books and from assigned school exercises in the place of complete dependence on the teacher. As intellectual products, these primary learnings are reading, writing, and the number system. With them, the pupil can begin to learn by study; without them, he must learn from parent or teacher or his contemporaries or not at all. When the pupil is thoroughly in possession of the primary learnings, he is certainly in a new period, and, if the first is primary, then this is secondary. In our laboratory practice, I think we have clearly shown that the tradition that pupils must go through some sort of purely mental maturing process before they can begin to learn by studying is sheer myth. Observing closely our children in the third or fourth grade at work with history, geography, and arithmetic, one finds it difficult indeed to see any difference in kind between their method and that of senior high school or junior-college pupils.

The next distinct difference is seen—sometimes—when, in the process of intellectual maturing, the pupil has reached the point at which he can and does set his own problems, find his own material, and control his own time; when he has learned to utilize his teacher as he does the library, the laboratory, or the consultant; when he has discovered that for purposes of further enlightenment he need not necessarily "take another course." For him, the period of general education is at an end, and the period of true specialized or scholarly or professional study has begun. He is out of the secondary school and in the university.



Now the young child becomes a pupil in the secondary school not because he has been in the primary school three years, or six years, or eight years, but because he has learned to read, to express himself in writing, and to utilize number concepts. He completes the secondary period not because he has been in school ten, twelve, or fourteen years but because he has learned to study and has acquired the intellectual background which makes self-dependent study possible. He does not cease to be at the secondary level in his intellectual development because he is registered in college; nor is he in fact still at secondary level merely because he is in high school.

Nevertheless, the secondary period is in the nature of things a long one. The maturing process is not subject to machine production. Intellectual maturity implies not only the mastery of a method of learning but it further implies a rich body of content. Still further, it implies volitional and social maturity—self-control and balance. At the best, it certainly runs beyond the adolescent period and in most cases well into what is now the four-year college period.

Our colleges and universities and even graduate schools are for the most part secondary schools for the simple reason that most of the students are still in the secondary period. Some students promptly emerge from the period at the senior-college level merely through being given the chance, as at Harvard and Swarthmore, to mention but two instances among many. The fundamental reason for this state of things, which is so universally deplored, is to be found in the principle that pupils are handed on through a succession of discontinuous schools, memorizing assignments out of textbooks, accumulating credits, and being matured by academic decree rather than by the processes of nature. Of late, even memorizing assignments has gone out of vogue; instead, the children "discuss" problems which would stagger a philosopher. Most college matriculants do not study because they have never studied: they have learned lessons all their lives; and the whole system in effect requires just that kind of thing. The individual escapes, if he escapes at all, by chance.

I have referred to the principle that what we sometimes call "movements" in education are likely to be random adaptive re-

sponses. Three such movements are clearly to be seen in our current history. Whether they are to be understood and guided through fact-finding and interpretation of the facts in the presence of an adequate analysis of the learning process itself and of current social and economic tendencies or to be allowed to lead us into blunder after blunder is, I take it, the chief educational problem of our time.

For about twenty years the growth of the junior high school, despite some setbacks, has been gathering momentum. This school has now received the accolade, more or less, as a veritable secondary school, and thus the secondary period has been pushed downward as far as the sixth grade. The junior high school was foreshadowed by President Eliot in the eighties, but it is noteworthy that the movement itself is part of the events which began to take shape in the first decade of this century. In principle, the movement was in part a revolt against the sharp discontinuity between the old eight-grade elementary school and the old middle-class high school and in part a sloughing-off of the obsolete content in the old seventh and eighth grades. In practice, it has more often been a means of carrying the load of children released from industry and sent to school. It is easy to see what the end product will be when schoolmasters shall have come to realize, as they will, that there is nothing more sacred in a 6-3-3 succession of years than in an 8-4 succession and, further, that a schoolhouse is in principle a method of sheltering school children, not a learning product.

A somewhat later correlative movement is that which goes under the name "junior college." I refer specifically to the instances in which the traditional first two years of the college career have been administratively associated with local high schools and from which continuants pass into the third year of the university. There is another type, the independent junior college, which has an interesting history of its own but is not essentially a part of the high-school extension tendency. Koos has monographed the whole movement. Koos<sup>1</sup> and Proctor and his colleagues<sup>2</sup> have discussed it in interpretative volumes.

<sup>1</sup> Leonard Vincent Koos, *The Junior College*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota, 1924. *The Junior College Movement*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1925.

<sup>2</sup> *The Junior College: Its Organization and Administration*. Edited by William Martin Proctor. Stanford University, California: Stanford University Press, 1927.

So far as the junior college is the product of a systematic analysis of the school organism, the movement goes back to the plans of President Harper, of the new University of Chicago. He saw clearly that the first two college years are essentially secondary in character, and both he and President Judson looked forward to the eventual elimination of these years.

Nevertheless, it is to be remarked that the recent rapid multiplication of local junior colleges did not occur until the period of pressure into the years traditionally belonging to the four-year college had arrived. It is hard to escape the inference that the movement is part of the social adjustment under which the school is taking up the labor surplus. When the glamor of the word "college" has become less impressive to the general public and when school people have learned to express education in terms more valid than time-to-be-spent, the result will be a secondary school which carries pupils to the end of the period of general or non-specialized education, or to the point of personal maturity.

The emergence of the municipal university might also be discussed as part of the same general readjustment which is going on. It is, however, apparently not part of the evolution of the school organism, and I omit the movement from this discussion.

On the other hand, the ferment in the four-year college over the Freshman problem is very much a symptom of the same process which has produced the junior high school and the junior-college movements. The Freshman is at bottom probably much the same creature which the Freshman was fifty years ago. There are more of him; his father earns more money; and fifty sections of English irritate us. We refuse to believe in anything but race deterioration and resort to all sorts of tables and graphs to prove our point. I have no doubt that faculties in the fourteenth century felt the same way and that the lamentable falling off in the character of the new students was frequently deplored in the faculty club at the University of Alexandria. I know that I have seldom seen a September in which gloom failed to prevail among public-school teachers on account of the material given them to labor with. The world is getting on, and higher institutions are trying to work with much the same school structure that they employed in the meager years which followed

the Civil War. One is reminded of a very similar situation in the old elementary seventh, eighth, and ninth grades in the days when Eliot was trying to persuade people that the world will not stand still. There was the structure, and it had to be filled. If pupils had not learned in six years, they must surely learn in nine. If the Freshman's training leaves much to be desired, it should be taken for granted that a year or two in college will set all right, no matter who teaches him. If it does not, the Freshman is poor material. Unhappily, the politicians in the state legislature refuse to see it that way. Even granted that two years of college work may mature our Freshman, it is an inexcusable waste of energy and money to do it that way when it can be done much more effectively and economically in an adequate secondary school.

Closely related to the Freshman problem is the extremely attractive "honors movement" in the senior college. True to three centuries of college tradition, the movement has to express itself in English terms. Why should we have "honors" courses, an "honors" school, even an "honors" building? What have "honors" to do with the matter save as inferiority compensation, an admission that for the rank and file the four-year college is bungling a secondary problem which it does not know how to handle in any systematic fashion? The obvious inference from the honors courses is that the last year or two of the four-year college is emerging into the stature of a true university for students who are intellectually mature. The other students are kept partly because faculties and administrations are still intellectually under the trammel of the mental stereotypes built around the four-year tradition and partly because it is necessary to maintain the college as an adequate athletic and alumni club.

The inexorable force of circumstances is redefining the secondary school and at the same time is fixing the order of time limits of the period of general education. Function in the end will determine structure in the school as truly as it does in the living organism. In the end we shall have a continuous school running from the point at which the primary learnings have been mastered to the point at which the individual has in fact become personally mature, as disclosed by evidence that he can be trusted to find his way about in a complex civilization, evidence that he has himself become civilized.

No less is the force of circumstances defining the American university as a place for the mature student who has found an intellectual interest and is capable of following it in the spirit of scholarship and science to the point at which he will be master of his chosen field.

Force of economic circumstances, however, will never produce the effective school. That can be done only by the patient application of scientific methods to the processes of the school itself, to the formulation of the curriculum, to the generation and control of the learning process, to the study of the individual pupil, to the financing of the school, to the determination of the school's place as an organ of the civil state.

It may well be doubted that American life has today any need greater or more critical than the development of the true university. We are abundantly prosperous and are likely to remain so. We have released the larger part of our youth for schooling and will probably release the whole period of youth for that purpose. We have not released them because we are prosperous; we are prosperous because we have released them. Our people are showing an astonishing willingness to intellectualize most of the commonplace activities of life if only the people can be led. But the very circumstances of our prosperity have created a sore need of the kind of discipline that we have thus far been able to give but haltingly in the last two college years and in the graduate school. Probably the most critical requirement in the intellectual life of the masses of the American people today is better academic as well as better professional training for teachers, executives, and staff officers in the secondary school. The people ask for it when they require the present high-school teachers to secure the Master's degree. A Master's degree awarded after a single year of work, subsequent to a chaotic academic training, is commonly a title, however, rather than a definition. This better training of teachers is only typical of similar requirements in industrial and commercial and professional life. There remains the inescapable requirement of research and the training of research workers not merely in the physical and biological sciences but in the whole round of our contacts with reality. The working laboratory in the industrial plant or in the city government may conduct highly

productive investigations, but it can never most economically and effectively train research workers possessed of background as well as technique.

In the end there will be a school organization in the home town, even in rather small villages, which will carry nearly all young people to the end of the period of general education in the sense in which I am using that term. If they continue beyond the secondary school, it will be not for the purpose of completing their education but rather for the purpose of special training and the pursuit of mature intellectual interests. It is a wonderful prospect, but I believe that confidence in the outcome is abundantly justified by the whole body of facts which are before us.

The universities—and many will be required—will bear little resemblance to the crowded cities of bricks and mortar and inadequate faculties with which we have been familiar for the past twenty years. They will no longer allow the legitimate work of a university to be swamped by the futile task of guiding immature students in the art of accumulating credits, and they will no longer attempt to do the work which the properly equipped secondary school can do much better. Further, they will devote some part of their energy with clear purpose to the problem of systematic and adequate academic training for teachers in the secondary school. The term "graduate school" will probably be omitted from the terminology. Students will appear when they are evidenced to be ready for university work, and they will receive their advanced degrees when the evidence shows that they are in fact Masters or Doctors, as the case may be.

I am formulating no plan; I am submitting an estimate. Faculties may debate and alumni associations resolve and newspaper writers editorialize, but in the end the census tables will dictate the outcome.



## METHODS EMPLOYED TO STIMULATE INTERESTS IN READING. I

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Late in 1925, Carl H. Milam, secretary of the American Library Association, asked William S. Gray, dean of the College of Education of the University of Chicago, to direct an investigation of the methods which teachers, school librarians, and public librarians employ to stimulate, make permanent, and elevate interests in reading. After the preparation of preliminary plans, which were developed in conference with Mr. Gray, the writer undertook in January, 1926, to collect the facts for which Mr. Milam had asked.

Data were sought through correspondence with executives and assistants in schools and libraries. Letters were sent in January, 1926, to one hundred superintendents of school systems located in every state in the United States and to a limited number of school librarians. The list of superintendents included the superintendents in all the cities with populations of more than 200,000 and the superintendents in a few cities with populations as small as 5,000. It was hoped to get returns that would reflect the best practices in cities of various sizes in all sections of the United States.

Each superintendent was asked to select the three ablest teachers of reading in his school system and to request them to answer the following questions.

1. What methods or devices have you found most successful in stimulating keen interest on the part of your pupils in reading (a) books, (b) magazines, and (c) newspapers? Discuss each separately.
2. What devices have you found most valuable in stimulating pupils to select books independently to read? Or, to put the matter in other terms, what methods have you used successfully in establishing permanent interests in independent reading?
3. What methods have you found successful in elevating the reading tastes of pupils and in directing their reading interests from undesirable to desirable types of literature?



In February, 1926, a letter, similar to the letter sent to the superintendents in January, was sent to a selected list of librarians furnished by Mr. Milam. These librarians were employed in libraries in twenty-eight states of the Union.

Forty per cent of the teachers and librarians to whom letters were sent replied. Answers came from thirty-three states and the District of Columbia. Relatively few came from the southern states. Teachers, school librarians, and public librarians were equally interested. The answers received were careful and complete and were often supplemented by excellent illustrative material. In some of the larger centers far greater assistance was given than was requested. In Washington, D.C., and in Cincinnati, the school authorities requested many teachers to reply. In Cleveland a committee of three librarians selected from the public-library staff was appointed to gather reports and material. This committee prepared the following questionnaire and sent it to all school librarians in the various Cleveland schools whose work the public library directs.

STUDY OF METHODS OF CULTIVATING  
WHOLESOME READING INTERESTS

Name of school _____	Type (Please check)	{	Elementary
Size of school _____			school
Nationalities _____			Junior high
represented _____			school
			Senior high
			school
			Neighborhood
			school only

Outside reading resources, such as home, church, clubs, etc.

NOTE.—In filling out this questionnaire, whenever possible, please indicate the kind of child or children with whom the devices are used. Use reverse side of sheet and additional sheets for replies. Please write fully. Do not check.

BOOKS

- A. Bulletin-board displays
1. Posters
  2. Pictures
  3. Book jackets
  4. Lists
  5. Reviews
  6. Announcements

- B. Exhibits
  - 1. Display of new books
  - 2. Display of special collections
  - 3. Museum exhibits
  - 4. Manual-art exhibits—suggested by books
- C. Book reviews
  - 1. Librarian's reviews
  - 2. Children's reviews
  - 3. Publishers' reviews
- D. Outside reading lists
  - 1. School distribution (required reading)
  - 2. Library distribution (suggested reading)
- E. Group activities
  - 1. Story hours
  - 2. Clubs
  - 3. Reading circles
  - 4. Class contests—posters, book plates, essays, etc.
  - 5. Auditorium programs
- F. Work with individuals
  - 1. "Moral suasion"
  - 2. Lists, made at request of child, teacher, parent, etc.
- G. Additional devices (Discuss in full any devices not suggested in the above outline that from your personal experience have proved helpful.)

#### MAGAZINES

Follow suggested outline for books wherever applicable.

#### NEWSPAPERS

Follow suggested outline for books wherever applicable.

Of special interest is the fact that the librarians in Cleveland were asked not merely to check the items but to write fully. Without doubt, similar instructions were given verbally in other cities, where fewer people were involved in preparing reports. As a result, most of the reports were full and complete, and the material supplied was practical and suggestive.

The reports were filed under three classifications according to the occupations of the persons reporting, namely, teachers, school librarians, and public librarians. The methods reported were transferred to cards, one method to a card.

The cards for teachers, school librarians, and public librarians were filed separately. For each type of worker the cards were sepa-

rated into five divisions: methods used to stimulate interests in books, methods used to stimulate interests in magazines, methods used to stimulate interests in newspapers, methods used to make interests permanent, and methods used to elevate tastes in reading. Within each of these classifications the cards were filed alphabetically.

In classifying the methods cards, it was discovered that there were not only distinct methods but variations of many of these methods. For example, one method employed to stimulate interest in books is the use of book lists. Forty different variations were reported for this one method alone. To distinguish the methods, the terms "master methods" and "variations of the master methods" were used. The total number of master methods is 110. These are shown in Table I in alphabetical order.

The reader who studies Table I should keep in mind the fact that it represents only the methods reported by contributors to this study. It is quite likely that the list is incomplete and that, if a check list had been prepared from the data secured in the initial survey and sent to many times the original number of teachers and librarians for checking, new methods would have been added to the list. Furthermore, the reader should remember that the last three columns in the table show only the types of workers—teachers, school librarians, and public librarians—who reported the methods listed, not the types of workers who actually used them. It was noticeable throughout the study that the contributors tended to stress their unusual methods rather than their common methods. Obviously, many teachers lure pupils by baiting; yet none said so in the reports received. Likewise, school librarians discourage undesirable reading; yet none indicated the fact in the letters sent in. Undoubtedly, public librarians commend deserving juvenile readers, but none reported such commendation. The three columns, therefore, do not indicate fully the extent of present practices. They merely indicate the sources from which the list of methods was secured.

The master methods may very well be grouped into ten large divisions, as follows:

1. *Provision for adequate supplies of reading material.*—The reports showed clearly that the amount of reading material supplied

TABLE I

MASTER METHODS EMPLOYED BY TEACHERS, SCHOOL LIBRARIANS, AND PUBLIC LIBRARIANS TO STIMULATE INTERESTS IN READING, TO ELEVATE TASTES IN READING, AND TO MAKE READING INTERESTS PERMANENT

Master Method	Teachers	School Librarians	Public Librarians
1. Ability grouping, Arranging for.....	X		
2. Advertisements, Having pupils study.....	X		
3. Advertising devices, Using.....	X	X	X
4. After-school reading, Permitting free-period and.....		X	
5. Analyses of good books, Making reading.....	X		X
6. Atmosphere, Creating wholesome.....	X	X	X
7. Attitude, Developing proper.....	X		
8. Authors, Having pupils study.....	X		
9. Baiting, Luring pupils by.....		X	
10. Beautiful passages, Having pupils note.....	X		
11. Book records, Having pupils keep.....		X	X
12. Book reserves, Establishing.....		X	
13. Book wagon, Sending out the.....			X
14. Booklets, Having pupils prepare.....	X	X	
15. Books, Having pupils bring.....	X		
16. Browsing corner, Providing a.....	X	X	X
17. Bulletin board, Using the.....	X	X	X
18. Cartoons, Having pupils interpret.....	X		
19. Catalogue cards, Preparing and using.....	X	X	X
20. Characters, Having pupils study.....	X		
21. Charts, Preparing and having pupils prepare.....	X		
22. Child librarians, Appointing.....			X
23. Children's criticisms, Inviting.....	X		
24. Choice, Allowing pupils freedom of.....	X	X	X
25. Circulation of reading matter, Arranging for.....	X	X	X
26. Civic use of library building, Allowing.....			X
27. Classroom libraries, Providing.....	X		
28. Classroom magazines and newspapers, Providing.....	X		
29. Clippings, Asking pupils to bring.....	X	X	
30. Clippings, Filing, in pamphlet boxes.....		X	X
31. Clubs, Encouraging reading.....	X	X	X
32. Commendations, Making deserved.....	X		
33. Comparative studies, Having pupils make.....	X	X	
34. Conferences, Capitalizing teacher-pupil or librarian-pupil.....	X	X	X
35. Contests, Organizing.....	X	X	X
36. Correlations with school subjects, Requiring.....	X	X	X
37. Credit, Giving reading.....	X	X	X
38. Current events, Assigning studies in.....	X	X	X
39. Debates, Encouraging.....	X		
40. Diagnoses of pupils' interests, Making.....	X	X	
41. Directions, Having pupils carry out, as found in printed instructions.....	X		
42. Discussions, Stimulating.....	X	X	X
43. Displays of books and magazines, Preparing.....	X	X	X
44. Dramatizations, Assigning.....	X	X	
45. Exercises, Arranging assembly and classroom.....	X	X	
46. Exhibits of pupils' handicraft work, Arranging.....			X
47. Games, Having pupils play.....	X	X	X
48. Illustrations, Having pupils study.....	X		

TABLE I—Continued

Master Method	Teachers	School Librarians	Public Librarians
49. Inferior reading materials, Teaching recognition of.	.....	×	.....
50. Interest, Stepping up .....	×	×	×
51. Library buildings, Providing attractive .....	.....	.....	×
52. Library cards, Having pupils get .....	×	.....	.....
53. Library equipment, Arranging .....	.....	×	.....
54. Lists, Preparing book .....	×	×	×
55. Loans of books and magazines, Making personal ..	×	.....	.....
56. Local papers, Putting school news in .....	×	.....	.....
57. Magazines, Binding .....	.....	×	×
58. Magazines, Classifying, into groups .....	.....	×	.....
59. Magazines, Filing, for reference .....	.....	×	.....
60. Magazine sections, Featuring special .....	×	.....	.....
61. Maps, Preparing literature .....	×	×	.....
62. Mechanics of reading, Using good methods in the ..	×	.....	.....
63. Motivation, Supplying appropriate .....	×	.....	.....
64. Moving pictures based on good literature, Recommending .....	×	×	.....
65. Objects, Using, as illustrative material .....	×	.....	.....
66. Original sources, Requiring pupils to read from ..	×	.....	.....
67. Parallel reading, Assigning .....	.....	×	×
68. Parental co-operation, Inviting .....	×	×	×
69. Partial reading, Doing .....	×	×	×
70. Personal libraries, Encouraging pupils to build ..	.....	.....	.....
71. Pictures, Using .....	×	×	×
72. Pleasure, Encouraging pupils to read for .....	×	.....	.....
73. Poetry, Having pupils read .....	×	.....	×
74. Posters, Using .....	×	×	×
75. Progress charts, Putting individual reading records on .....	×	×	.....
76. Projects based on reading, Having pupils develop ..	×	×	.....
77. Public library, Encouraging pupils to use the .....	×	×	.....
78. Public-library school collections, Circulating .....	×	×	×
79. Puzzles, Having pupils solve .....	×	.....	.....
80. Qualified librarians and teachers, Appointing only ..	×	×	×
81. Reading courses, Having pupils take .....	.....	×	.....
82. Reading materials, Providing good .....	×	.....	×
83. Reading periods, Allowing .....	×	×	.....
84. Readings, Giving selected, to pupils .....	×	.....	×
85. Red stars, Marking books with .....	.....	×	×
86. Reports, Having pupils prepare .....	×	×	×
87. Required readings, Assigning .....	×	×	.....
88. Reviews, Having pupils read and prepare .....	×	×	×
89. Salesmanship, Having pupils engage in mock .....	×	.....	.....
90. School papers, Using, to stimulate interests .....	×	×	.....
91. Seasonal books, Featuring .....	.....	.....	×
92. Selections of reading materials for the library, Making appropriate .....	×	×	×
93. Sequences, Having pupils follow .....	.....	×	×
94. Serial stories, Having pupils read .....	.....	×	.....
95. Slides and films, Showing literary .....	×	.....	.....
96. Spare-time reading, Making provision for .....	.....	×	.....
97. Special library training, Giving, to librarians .....	.....	.....	×
98. Special shelves for boys and girls, Providing .....	.....	.....	×

TABLE I—*Continued*

Master Method	Teachers	School Librarians	Public Librarians
99. Statistical studies of class interest in fiction and non-fiction, Having pupils make.....		×	
100. Story-telling periods, Programming.....	×	×	×
101. Subscriptions for desirable periodicals, Encouraging.....	×		
102. Substitutions, Making desirable.....	×	×	×
103. Suggestions and recommendations, Making.....	×	×	×
104. Talks by librarians or others, Arranging for.....	×	×	×
105. Teachers, Co-operating with.....		×	×
106. Tours and visits, Taking pupils on real or imaginary.....	×	×	×
107. Undesirable reading, Discouraging.....	×		
108. Use of reading materials and libraries, Teaching proper.....	×	×	×
109. Weeks, Programming literary.....	×	×	
110. Welfare stations, Sending books to.....			×

varies in different communities. In some places great abundance of material is the rule, and the generosity of the communities is noted in well-stocked shelves. On the other hand, some teachers work with such limited resources that they lend their own books and magazines and they ask the pupils to exchange home-reading materials with their classmates.

2. *Provision for suitable buildings, rooms, and physical equipment.*—The list of master methods reveals the increasing interest in providing juvenile readers with comfortable and inviting reading environments. In the larger cities, notably Cleveland, attractive rooms are provided for different types of juvenile readers for the purpose of developing and fixing reading habits early.

3. *Direct teaching techniques.*—The list of master methods shows the strong emphasis placed on direct methods which seek to stimulate interests in reading.

4. *Incidental teaching techniques.*—The list of master methods also reveals the fact that incidental methods are employed. The reports brought out repeatedly the fact that subtle methods which leave the young reader to his own devices are especially useful in dealing with readers who fail to react favorably to direct methods.

5. *Systems of rewards and credits.*—Inducements are common everywhere. Both teachers and librarians offer them in many forms. Among their co-workers, however, are those who criticize severely

methods of this kind on the ground that children should learn to read merely for the sake of reading.

6. *Advertising methods.*—Ingenious methods of advertising have been devised by teachers and librarians. The range extends from simple bookmarks to elaborate electric window displays.

7. *Circulation of reading materials.*—Books and other literature must be not only provided but also circulated. Making literature accessible is a problem, especially in large libraries where demands vary and fluctuate. Methods of distribution, therefore, from the simple exchange in a rural school to special service from the main library to extension points are utilized to meet the demands of readers.

8. *Training workers.*—The recognition of the fact that trained persons can serve best is emphasized in several reports. It is keenly felt that opportunities to stimulate youth are lost when inexperienced and untrained teachers and librarians are employed by communities.

9. *Special features, activities, and programs.*—Dramatizations, programs, assemblies, and special occasions are used by progressive librarians and teachers to interest children in more and better reading. Workers everywhere emphasize the possibilities of this method of approaching the problem.

10. *Extension developments.*—Librarians are interested in service. Their methods in the more progressive communities are such that they extend their services to many centers. No opportunity to serve is overlooked. Clubs, stores, special meeting-places, wherever children are to be found, are served. In some communities service is extended throughout whole counties from a large central city library. In some cities service is also given through the mails. Milwaukee, for example, serves its people in this way.

[To be continued]



## ARCHITECTURAL PLANS OF ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICES IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS<sup>1</sup>

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The architectural plan of the administrative offices of a secondary school plays so large a part in determining office practices and methods of school management that it deserves careful study. The amount of space in a school building which is set aside for administrative purposes, the subdivision of this space into offices, and the relation of the offices to one another and to the remainder of the school so condition administrative procedure that without a consideration of this whole group of facts any study of office practices would be incomplete.

Of 522 representative secondary schools, only 38 did not report a special office for the use of the principal. The absence of office accommodations in a school forces the principal to provide makeshift arrangements for carrying on office work. Either a classroom must be set aside or other space must be made available in which the principal may attend to the general administrative work of the school. The proper management and direction of a secondary school require that records be kept, that pupils be interviewed, and that parents and visitors be received in some definite place. To provide no office for the principal in a secondary-school building is to ignore completely one of the factors essential to the effective direction of the school.

Four hundred and eighty-four, or 92.7 per cent, of the schools reported some kind of administrative office. The information obtained with regard to the offices in these schools is summarized in Table I. In fifty-seven schools the office of the principal is a single room; the remaining 427 schools which reported offices have conveniences extending beyond a single room.

- <sup>1</sup> This article is the fourth of a series of articles dealing with certain aspects of secondary-school administration. The first three articles appeared in the October, November, and December, 1928, issues of the *School Review*.

Prominent among the office plans is the arrangement which divides the principal's office into inner and outer offices. In the outer office, space is usually provided for clerks and for the files of the school. Eighty-one and eight-tenths per cent of the 522 schools have

TABLE I  
NUMBER OF SCHOOLS REPORTING VARIOUS TYPES OF OFFICE ARRANGEMENTS

	Enrolment Groups									Total
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
Single room for administrative office.....	3	15	15	14	5	5	0	0	0	57
Outer office and inner office....	6	9	38	50	59	77	92	55	41	427
Type of office not specified.....	0	5	2	11	8	5	3	2	2	38
Reception room adjacent to outer office.....	3	4	22	33	38	53	71	39	29	292
Counter between outer office and reception room.....	0	1	16	26	35	47	71	38	29	263
Private office for principal adjacent to outer office.....	3	5	32	48	57	76	88	53	39	401
Office for assistant principal adjacent to outer office.....	1	1	2	13	6	20	39	30	29	141
Office for dean of girls in general office group.....	1	0	8	10	17	23	40	30	17	146
Office for counselor of boys in general office group.....	0	1	3	4	3	11	15	17	16	70
Office for director of extra-curriculum activities in general office group.....	0	1	2	2	2	8	8	9	7	39
Office for attendance officer in general office group.....	0	1	3	4	12	19	14	13	17	83
Administrative offices on first floor of building.....	6	10	30	40	40	60	66	38	37	327
Administrative offices on second floor of building.....	3	12	23	25	22	25	28	17	3	158
Administrative offices on third floor of building.....	0	0	2	3	3	0	0	0	1	9
Floor not specified.....	0	7	0	7	7	2	1	2	2	28
Number of schools in each enrolment group.....	9	29	55	75	72	87	95	57	43	522

outer offices; of the 93 small schools in Groups 1-3 (4-300), 57.0 per cent have outer offices; of the 234 middle-sized schools in Groups 4-6 (301-1,000), 79.5 per cent have outer offices; of the 195 large schools in Groups 7-9 (1,001-6,500), 96.4 per cent have outer offices. The data show that the outer office becomes increasingly common as the schools increase in size.

In the larger schools the offices are further subdivided to provide

for the reception of callers and visitors. The larger the school, the greater the demand for a reception room in the office suite. It is interesting to note, however, that 33.3 per cent of the nine small schools in Group 1 (4-100) have reception rooms, while only 13.8 per cent of the twenty-nine schools in Group 2 (101-200) have such rooms. This fact may probably be accounted for by reference to the dates of construction of the school buildings. The relatively recent national interest in the small community high school may explain the fact that the small schools have in many cases reception rooms in connection with the principals' office suites. Of the 93 schools in Groups 1-3 (4-300), 29, or 31.2 per cent, have reception rooms; 53.0 per cent of the 234 middle-sized schools in Groups 4-6 (301-1,000) and 71.3 per cent of the 195 large schools in Groups 7-9 (1,001-6,500) have reception rooms. More than one-half (55.9 per cent) of the 522 schools have reception rooms, and the percentage increases in the main with the increase in the enrolment of the schools.

The division of the office so as to provide a reception room is accomplished in some schools by the use of a counter which separates the reception room from the outer office. The business carried on in the outer office is best performed if visitors to the office are prevented from getting too close to the work. Separation of the reception room from the outer office does not necessarily need to be complete; a counter therefore adequately serves the purpose. The counter serves two other purposes. First, it may be used as a writing table for pupils and visitors who come to the office to fill out cards, schedules, and other forms. Second, when parents, faculty members, or visitors come to the office for information or conference with the principal, they can make their presence known to the clerk with less formality than would be required if, instead of a counter, a full partition separated the reception room from the outer office.

The use of a counter to separate the reception room from the outer office is a practice of the large schools in the main. Of the 93 small schools in Groups 1-3 (4-300), 18.3 per cent have counters; 46.2 per cent of the 234 middle-sized schools in Groups 4-6 (301-1,000) and 70.8 per cent of the 195 large schools in Groups 7-9 (1,001-6,500) have counters. On account of the wording of the

question in the check list regarding the presence of a counter in the office, only those schools having reception rooms and outer offices separated by counters gave replies suitable for tabulation. From the sketches of the office plans which the principals were asked to make on the check lists, it was learned that the use of a counter to separate the outer office from the principal's office is as characteristic of the small high schools as the use of a counter to separate the reception room from the outer office is characteristic of the large high schools.

Another feature of the architectural plan of the administrative offices in the secondary school is the use of a private office for the principal connected in some way with the general office. If the principal's responsibilities include the duties of pupil counselor and faculty consultant, physical facilities must be provided to enable him to work effectively. Pupils, parents, and teachers often come to the principal's office on missions that are of such a personal character that privacy in conference must be assured. The principal's private office, however, must be relatively close to the offices where much of the filing and other administrative work is being done under his immediate supervision. Although the reasons for having a private office for the principal are the same irrespective of the size of the school, the present study indicates that such offices become increasingly common as the size of the schools increases. Of the 93 schools in Groups 1-3 (4-300), 43.0 per cent have private offices for the principals adjacent to the outer offices; 77.4 per cent of the 234 middle-sized schools in Groups 4-6 (301-1,000) and 92.3 per cent of the 195 large schools in Groups 7-9 (1,001-6,500) have private offices for the principals.

Table I shows that some of the schools have private offices for the assistant principals similar to those for the principals. If the assistant principal is called upon to deal with the personnel problems of the school, he should be provided with an office that can be shut off from the remainder of the office suite when occasion demands. The data show, however, that, while 76.8 per cent of the schools provide private offices for the principals, only 27.0 per cent have private offices for the assistant principals although 55.0 per cent of the schools have such officers. Of the 93 small schools in Groups 1-3 (4-300), only 4.3 per cent provide private offices for the

assistant principals although 25.8 per cent of these schools have assistant principals. Of the 234 middle-sized schools in Groups 4-6 (301-1,000), only 16.7 per cent provide private offices for the assistant principals although 45.3 per cent of these schools have assistant principals. Of the 195 large schools in Groups 7-9 (1,001-6,500), only 50.3 per cent provide private offices for the assistant principals although 79.5 per cent have such officers. The fact that private-office space is not provided for all assistant principals is no doubt due in part to the fact that many communities have only recently been convinced of the need for an assistant principal in the secondary school. In a number of schools, especially in the larger schools, the assistant principal has his office space apart from the general office. This is explained by the fact that he has duties that can be performed independently of the general administrative office. In some cases it is doubtless true that there was no assistant principal when the building was first erected and no provision was made in the general offices for such an officer. As the enrolment of the school increased, the best arrangements possible were made. A classroom or other space was converted into an office.

In addition to the principal and the assistant principal, some schools have a dean of girls, a counselor of boys, a director of extra-curriculum activities, and an attendance officer or visiting teacher. Frequently a pupil or a parent comes to the school for a conference that is of interest to more than one of these officers. Such group conferences are more readily arranged if all the administrative officers have offices adjoining the general administrative offices. Table I shows the extent to which office space is provided in the general-office suite for the dean of girls, the counselor of boys, the director of extra-curriculum activities, and the attendance officer or visiting teacher. Some of the large schools in Groups 7-9 (1,001-6,500) apparently have provided office space for these special administrative officers but have not as yet appointed them. This fact indicates a forward-looking policy that is wholesome. Although there are a number of special staff officers in the 522 secondary schools without designated quarters in the general-office suites, the situation is encouraging. The counselors of boys, although fewer in number than the deans of girls, are better cared for in the schools in so far as

office space is concerned. The number of schools which provide offices for special staff officers is surprisingly large in view of the fact that these specialists are only recent additions to the administrative staff.

Two questions with regard to the placement of the administrative office in relation to the entire school plan were asked. First, inquiry was made as to the floor on which the office is located; second, inquiry was made as to the location of the office with respect to the main entrance of the school. Table I presents the findings with regard to the floor placement of the administrative offices. As

TABLE II  
LOCATION OF THE PRINCIPAL'S OFFICE IN 484 SCHOOLS

Enrolment Group	Number of Schools Having Principal's Office near Entrance	Number of Schools Having Principal's Office Centrally Located	Number of Schools Having Principal's Office near Entrance and Centrally Located	Percentage of Schools Having Principal's Office near Entrance and Centrally Located
1 (4-100).....	7	2	0	0.0
2 (101-200).....	13	18	7	29.2
3 (201-300).....	32	30	9	17.0
4 (301-500).....	50	52	38	59.4
5 (501-700).....	51	42	29	45.3
6 (701-1,000).....	63	56	37	45.1
7 (1,001-1,500).....	79	63	50	54.3
8 (1,501-2,000).....	51	37	33	60.0
9 (2,001-6,500).....	37	39	35	85.4
Total.....	383	339	238	49.2

one might expect, the third floor is rarely used for the administrative offices, but it is significant that a number of the medium-sized schools locate their offices on the third floor. Only one school in Groups 7-9 (1,001-6,500) has located the principal's office on the third floor. Tradition and the increasing tendency to place the general offices near the entrance account for the fact that 66.2 per cent of the 494 schools which reported the location of their offices have them on the first floor.

The location of the office in relation to the main entrance becomes more important as the schools increase in enrolment. In attempting to serve its pupils effectively, the modern secondary school seeks to establish contacts with other institutions in the community.



Not infrequently such contacts are established through the administrative officers. Visitors and patrons coming to the school should be able to find their way to these officers with little difficulty. Table II shows that in 49.2 per cent of the schools the principal's office is both centrally located and near the entrance. In some cases central location is reported where the entrance is in another part of the building.

#### SUMMARY

Thirty-eight of the 522 schools did not report any office space for the principal; 57 schools provide only a single room; the large majority of schools, however, have office facilities extending beyond one room. Outer offices are provided in 427 schools and reception rooms in 292 schools. Such facilities are distributed throughout the enrolment groups. Separate offices for the assistant principal and other staff officers are provided in many schools. Especially significant is the fact that these office provisions are not confined to the large schools. In the schools reporting, the number of offices for deans of girls is more than twice the number of offices for counselors of boys. If provision of offices for the special staff officers in the general-office suites is indicative of their relative importance, the following order is suggested by the schools reporting: dean of girls (146), assistant principal (141), attendance officer (83), counselor of boys (70), and director of extra-curriculum activities (39).

On the whole, there is a fair distribution of office facilities in the schools of all sizes. Many complete and well-arranged offices are to be found in the smaller schools. It can therefore be assumed that the date at which a school building was erected often has more to do with the office plan than does the enrolment of the school.



## DETERMINING STANDARDS IN ENGLISH COMPOSITION. II

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### STANDARDS IN ROUND-TABLE DISCUSSION

Group discussion is another composition activity which may be subjected to analysis. The following is a brief summary of the results of such a study.

The data were obtained principally from thirty-five persons who have had considerable experience as leaders of round-table discussions or as participants in such discussions in clubs and other organizations. Some of the items in the list of difficulties, however, were contributed by members of clubs or classes in school.

The following questions were asked.

1. What difficulties are commonly experienced (a) in conducting round-table discussions effectively? (b) In participating as a member of the group?
2. What general qualifications are needed (a) by the leader of a round-table discussion? (b) By the members of the group?
3. What should a leader do in order to guarantee an effective discussion?
4. What should each member of the group do in order to make the discussion a success?

*List of difficulties.*—From the answers to Question 1 and from other sources already mentioned, the following list of difficulties was compiled.

### DIFFICULTIES MET IN CARRYING ON ROUND-TABLE DISCUSSION

#### A. DIFFICULTIES EXPERIENCED BY THE CHAIRMAN

1. The lack of a clearly stated object.
2. The lack of skill in holding the discussion to the subject.
3. The inability to keep members from talking about trivial matters.
4. The lack of a courteous manner in "choking off" idle discussion.
5. Occasional attempts of some members to force a "program" through rather than to effect a real "meeting of minds."
6. The tendency of some members to talk too long.
7. The tendency to become too personal.
8. The lack of a sense of humor on the part of members.

9. The lack of knowledge of parliamentary practice (on the part of the leader or on the part of the members).

10. The tendency of some members to become antagonistic.

11. The tardiness of members, which compels a late beginning of the meeting, causes annoying interruptions, or necessitates repetition.

12. The hesitancy of the person who knows that he is expected to take the lead in discussion.

13. The lack of knowledge of the subject on the part of the members.

14. The tendency of some members to indulge in superfluous explanation.

(a) They "thresh old straw" for the benefit of the ignorant. (b) They "discover" and "trot out" something which is supposed to be new.

15. The lack of training in the art of listening to a speaker for the purpose of building up well-rounded replies or of supporting his points intelligently.

16. The tendency of some members to interrupt.

17. The tendency of some members to "hurry things up."

18. The lack of open-mindedness on the part of some, particularly "dominant members."

19. The failure of some to enter into the discussion.

20. The inability of most people to think.

21. The lack of a well-formulated plan.

22. The lack of interest on the part of the participants.

23. The tendency of the chairman to talk too much.

24. The lack of courage to face a difficult situation.

25. The tendency of the chairman to hold pre-formed opinions.

26. A too dominant personality on the part of the chairman or some member.

27. The failure to secure an informal, "free-from-restraint" attitude on the part of the members.

28. The failure to cover all points scheduled for discussion.

29. The tendency of some participants to express views they think will please rather than honest opinions.

30. The tendency on the part of some members to indulge in acrimonious remarks.

#### B. DIFFICULTIES EXPERIENCED BY MEMBERS OF THE GROUP

1. The lack of suitable data to be used in preparation.

2. The lack of leadership on the part of the chairman.

3. The failure of the chairman to permit a free and fair discussion.

4. The tendency of some members to drift away from the main issue.

5. The failure of some members to be on time.

6. The necessity of reviewing the discussion for a tardy member.

7. The tendency to form judgments before all the facts are presented.

8. The introduction of suggestions or comments by immature and inexperienced individuals.

9. The failure to become interested in the discussion.

10. The tendency of some members to be stubborn.
11. The tendency of some members to talk too long.
12. The tendency of some members to talk too often.
13. The feeling of incompetence in discussing the issue (the inferiority complex).
14. The lack of information concerning the schedule or program.
15. The difficulty of getting the floor.
16. The tendency of some members to hurt the feelings of others by harsh criticism.
17. The tendency of some members to interrupt others.
18. The tendency of some members to be guided by their prejudices and not by the facts presented in the discussion.
19. The failure of the chairman and the members to follow parliamentary practice.

*Desirable qualities of the leader and members of the group.*—From the answers to Question 2 a preliminary list of traits was compiled. To this list were added traits not specifically named in the answers to Question 2 but implied in the answers to other questions. The final lists were then developed by combining identical traits or traits which were considered so nearly identical as to permit blending.

DESIRABLE QUALITIES OF LEADER IN ROUND-TABLE DISCUSSION<sup>1</sup>

1. Skill in directing the discussion
2. Good understanding of subject under discussion
3. Fairness
4. Ability to secure participation
5. Firmness
6. Knowledge of parliamentary rules
7. Tact
8. Modesty
9. Ability to speak concisely and clearly
10. Ability to think quickly and accurately
11. Self-control
12. Courtesy
13. Broadmindedness
14. Practical knowledge of psychology
15. Sense of humor
16. Originality
17. Correct use of English
18. Democratic spirit
19. Pleasing voice qualities
20. Enthusiastic interest

<sup>1</sup> The items in this list are arranged in the order of frequency of mention.

DESIRABLE QUALITIES OF PARTICIPANTS IN ROUND-TABLE DISCUSSION<sup>1</sup>

1. The co-operative spirit
2. Ability to speak clearly and to the point
3. Special preparation for the discussion
4. Courtesy
5. Attentiveness
6. Knowledge of subject
7. Fairness
8. Open-mindedness
9. Self-control
10. Ability to organize ideas
11. Pleasing voice, qualities
12. Knowledge of parliamentary rules
13. Courage in the expression of opinion
14. Good judgment
15. Respectful attitude toward the leader
16. Confidence in one's own opinion
17. Ability to think quickly
18. Background of experience
19. Originality
20. Ability to use English effectively
21. Tact
22. Sense of humor

*Making a definitive list.*—The suggestions contained in the answers to Questions 3 and 4 furnished a large number of definite trait actions. They explained in concrete terms the meaning and the importance of many of the qualities already mentioned. These suggestions of definite "things to be done" were translated into statements and attached to those traits which they seemed best to illustrate. Thus, each trait was defined by a number of explanatory statements. In many cases additional explanatory statements were supplied by the persons conducting the study. The definitive list thus developed is too long to include here. An excerpt may be given, however, by way of illustration.

For effective round-table discussion, the leader should possess—

Skill in directing the discussion.

He formulates a definite program.

He holds each speaker to the point.

He states the purpose of the discussion so that all members of the group understand it.

<sup>1</sup> The items in this list are arranged in the order of frequency of mention.

He notes the bearing of each speech on the main issue.  
He follows carefully the turns of the discussion.  
He unifies the discussion by making appropriate comments.  
He "bridges over the gaps" by helpful explanations or suggestions.  
He does not permit the discussion to drag.  
He occasionally gives a clear-cut summary of some part of the discussion.  
He clarifies the issue in case it becomes clouded.

Good understanding of subject under discussion.

He informs himself thoroughly on the subject to be discussed.  
He reads articles that bear on the subject.  
He spends some time in thinking the subject through before the meeting.  
He selects the outstanding and significant points as centers for discussion.  
He gets a perspective of the problem.  
He knows something of the prevailing opinions concerning the subject.  
He makes a tentative organization of his ideas on the subject.

Fairness.

He is impartial in his decisions.  
He apportions time fairly.  
He does not permit any participant to take unfair advantage in discussions.  
He treats all participants alike.  
He gives each person a chance to express his views.  
He subordinates his personal prejudices with regard to the topic under discussion.

Ability to secure participation.

He insists on group preparation.  
He suggests topics for discussion to individual members before the meeting.  
He assigns specific phases of the subject to certain members.  
He circulates an analysis of the subject in advance.  
He asks questions that will provoke responses.  
He "inspires" the members to discussion by the enthusiasm which he shows.  
He "draws out" members of the group by encouraging and appreciative statements.

SUMMARY

In brief, it has been the purpose of this discussion (1) to emphasize the fact that the English-composition curriculum is being redefined in terms of social activities, (2) to point out the urgent need for adequate standards in connection with the various activities to be taught, (3) to suggest the desirability of determining standards by careful analytical studies of the activities, and (4) to illustrate the character of the results that may be obtained from such methodical analyses by presenting descriptive accounts of two such studies together with specific data derived.

## THE SOCIAL AND EDUCATIONAL STATUS OF THE PUPILS IN A RESIDENTIAL SUBURBAN COMMUNITY

J. F. TOWELL

Lyons Township High School, La Grange, Illinois

For the purpose of discovering some of the social and educational influences which affect pupil enrolment, participation in activities, and scholarship in the high school, the writer was engaged for three years in a study of the school population of a residential suburban community, the Lyons Township High School district, with buildings located in La Grange, Illinois. It is the object of this article to present some of the important findings of the investigation.

The study is based on data obtained from blanks filled out by pupils in the high school under the direction of specially trained teachers, from blanks filled out by parents of other persons in the high-school district between the ages of seven and twenty-one years, and from records on file in the office of the high school. The returns are from 54.3 per cent of all persons in the high-school district between the ages of seven and twenty-one years. All pupils in regular attendance at the high school from September, 1923, to June, 1925, are included.

The area which contains 98.6 per cent of the population of the Lyons Township High School district is predominantly a section of homes. The district has no large industries which require large numbers of poorly paid laborers. A large percentage of the householders are Chicago business and professional men who desire to rear their families away from the noise, dirt, and vicious environment of the large city. There are few apartment buildings, and the data show that 85 per cent of the parents of the pupils in the high school own their own homes.

The data were grouped according to the occupations of the fathers of the individuals studied, the I.Q.'s of the pupils in the high school, and the scholastic success of the pupils in the high school in terms of teachers' marks.

The occupational classifications used by Counts<sup>1</sup> served as a basis for the nine occupational divisions necessary to include all the cases in the study: proprietors, professional service, managerial service, commercial and clerical service, the trades, transportation service, personal and public service, agricultural service, and common labor.

The I.Q.'s as determined by the Otis Self-Administering Test of Mental Ability were used to group the high-school pupils according to mental ability. The 25 per cent of each year's class having

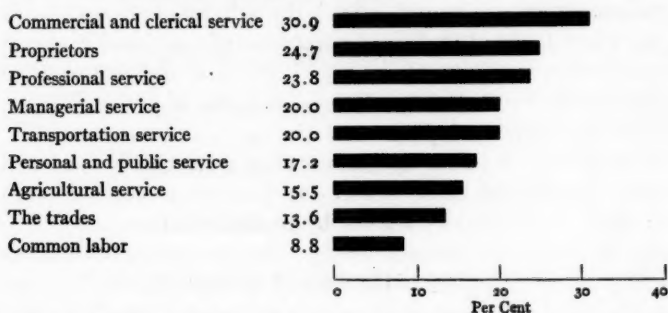


FIG. 1.—Percentage of persons between seven and twenty-one years of age in each occupational division in the Lyons Township High School district who attend the high school.

the highest I.Q.'s were classified as Rank 1, the next 25 per cent as Rank 2, the next 25 per cent as Rank 3, and the lowest 25 per cent as Rank 4. In the same manner the average standings as determined by teachers' marks were used to classify the pupils into Ranks A, B, C, and D.

The data show that slightly more than 5 per cent of the entire population of the Lyons Township High School district is enrolled in the high school. This patronage, however, is not at all uniform for the several occupational divisions. Figure 1 shows the percentage of persons between seven and twenty-one years of age in each occupational division who attend the high school.

The data reveal that a majority of those in the common-labor, the trades, and the agricultural divisions do not graduate from the

<sup>1</sup> George Sylvester Counts, *The Selective Character of American Secondary Education*, pp. 22-23. Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 19. Chicago: Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1922.



high school. Almost one-half the representatives of common labor and personal and public service fail to attend high school at all. The transportation division has a large percentage entering the high school, but many drop out before graduation.

The professional division leads in college attendance. It is followed in turn by the managerial division, the commercial and

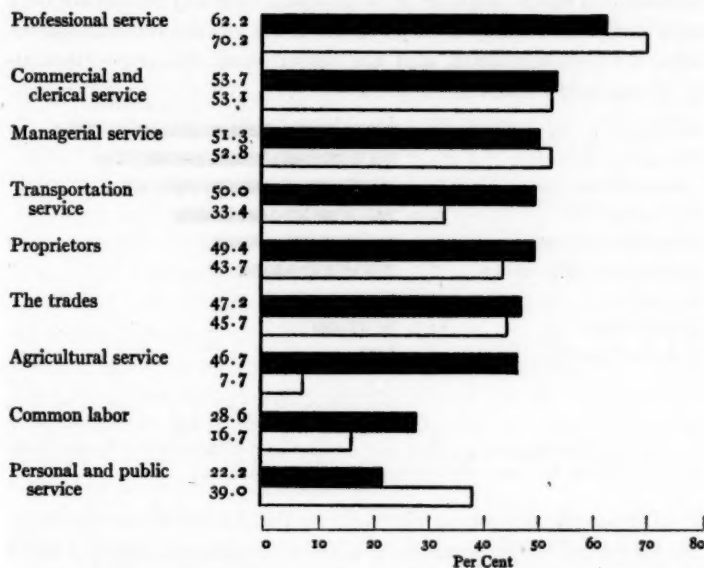


FIG. 2.—Percentage of pupils in each occupational division in the Lyons Township High School who do work above the average of their class (black bars) and percentage of pupils who have I.Q.'s above the average of their class (white bars).

clerical division, and the proprietary division. Although the official records of the high school show that 70 per cent of the graduates attend college, the percentages are small for the agricultural, the trades, and the transportation divisions. The common labor and the personal- and public-service divisions report no representatives in college.

Figure 2 shows the relation existing among the three classifications under which the data are treated. The white bars indicate the percentage of the pupils in each occupational division having I.Q.'s

above the average of their class in the high school. The percentage of pupils in each occupational division who do work above the average of their class is shown by the black bars.

The personal- and public-service division falls below its expectancy by 16.8 points; the professional division, by 8.0 points; and the managerial division, by 1.5 points. The other six occupational divisions do better work in the main than their I.Q.'s indicate they should. This tendency is pronounced in the case of the transportation, the common-labor, and the agricultural divisions, especially the agricultural division.

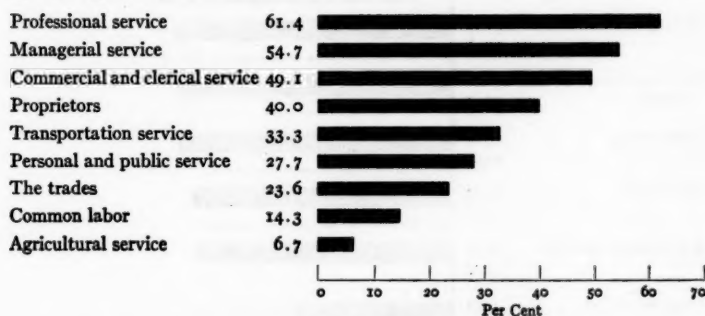


FIG. 3.—Percentage of pupils in each occupational division in the Lyons Township High School who elect the college-preparatory curriculum.

Almost all the course elections in the Lyons Township High School are college preparatory, general, or commercial. Only a small percentage of the pupils choose the commercial curriculum.

The data reveal that in the professional division alone a majority of the boys elect subjects in conformity with the college-preparatory curriculum. On the other hand, the girls choosing the college-preparatory curriculum are in the majority in the professional, the managerial, and the commercial and clerical divisions and almost in the majority in the proprietary division.

When the boys and the girls are considered together, the professional-service division leads in the election of the college-preparatory curriculum with a percentage of 61.4. The agricultural division ranks last with a percentage of 6.7. The percentages for the nine occupational divisions are shown in Figure 3.

Liberal college-entrance requirements make it possible for many pupils who plan to attend college to pursue the general curriculum instead of the college-preparatory curriculum. This no doubt accounts in part for the fact that only 43.8 per cent of the entire student body elect the college-preparatory curriculum while 70 per cent actually attend college after graduation from the high school.

Both mental ability and scholastic success in the high school seem to have a bearing on the election of curriculums. Seventy-one and two-tenths per cent of the Rank 1 pupils elect the college-preparatory curriculum. The percentages for Ranks 2, 3, and 4 are 53.2, 34.2, and 18.4, respectively. The elections of the college-preparatory curriculum for Ranks A, B, C, and D pupils are 63.2 per cent, 48.6 per cent, 38.7 per cent, and 22.9 per cent, respectively.

There seems to be considerable harmony between election of the college-preparatory curriculum and expectancy following graduation in the case of the several occupational divisions. Sixty-five and nine-tenths per cent of the professional division, 63.1 per cent of the managerial division, 54.5 per cent of the commercial and clerical division, 54.3 per cent of the proprietary division, 45.8 per cent of the transportation division, 36.4 per cent of the agricultural division, 32.0 per cent of the trades division, 18.8 per cent of the common-labor division, and 16.7 per cent of the personal- and public-service division expect to attend college.

The percentages of pupils ranking 1, 2, 3, and 4 who expect to attend college are 65.5, 58.6, 47.7, and 36.3, respectively. The percentages of pupils ranking A, B, C, and D who expect to attend college are 55.8, 55.5, 45.3, and 51.3, respectively.

The returns indicate that nearly one-half the parents of the boys and the girls in the high-school district have attended high school. In the case of the high-school pupils 55.8 per cent of the fathers and the same percentage of the mothers have attended high school. Forty and one-tenth per cent of the fathers have graduated from high school; 29.6 per cent have attended college; and 19.8 per cent have graduated from college. Except for high-school attendance, the percentages are slightly lower in the case of the mothers.

The relation of the high-school attendance of the fathers to the educational level reached by the individuals studied is presented in

Figure 4. This figure shows the percentage of persons at each educational level whose fathers have attended high school. A similar situation prevails in the case of graduation from high school, college attendance, and graduation from college.

The data also show that parental training is somewhat related to the scholarship of the children. Sixty per cent of the mothers of Rank A pupils have attended high school. The percentages for B, C, and D pupils are 59.9, 53.4, and 43.4, respectively. A similar situation obtains in the case of the fathers.

Nearly all the pupils in the district are American born. Twenty-five per cent of the individuals studied have foreign-born fathers,

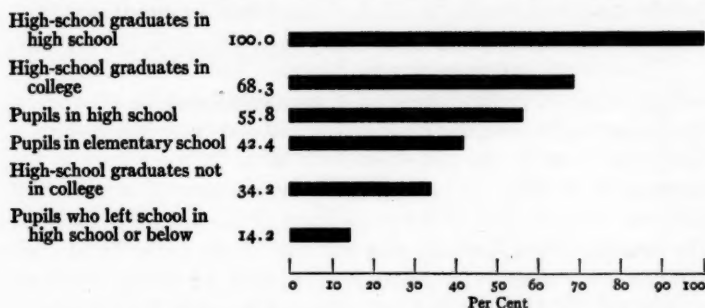


FIG. 4.—Percentage of individuals at each educational level whose fathers have attended high school.

and 21 per cent have foreign-born mothers. Very few children of foreign-born parents go to college. More than 50 per cent of those who leave school before they reach the high school have immigrant parents. Many of the pupils having immigrant parents drop out of high school as well. This is particularly noticeable in the case of those whose mothers are foreign born.

The nativity of the father seems to have no bearing on the scholastic success of the pupil in high school. In the main, children of American-born mothers do better work than do those of foreign-born mothers. The study shows that the number of D pupils having immigrant mothers is nearly twice as great as the number of A pupils having immigrant mothers.

A great number of pupils who are members of large families

leave school either before they reach the high school or before they graduate from high school. Families of six or more children are little represented in college. Figure 5 compares the attendance on high school of individuals who have neither brothers nor sisters with the attendance of those who have one or two, three or four, or five or more brothers or sisters. Slightly more than one-half of the first group, more than one-third of the second group, more than one-fourth of the third group, and less than one-fourth of the fourth group attend high school. It appears that the larger families are less likely to patronize the high school than are the smaller families.

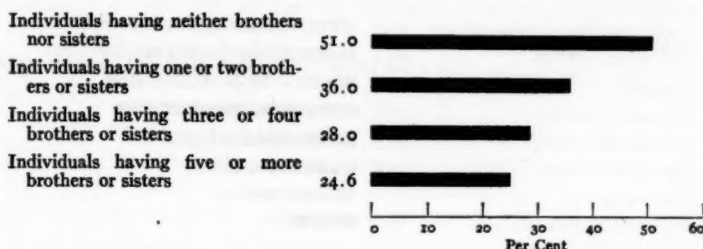


FIG. 5.—Percentage of individuals attending the high school who have neither brothers nor sisters, one or two brothers or sisters, three or four brothers or sisters, and five or more brothers or sisters.

The findings of the study show further that on the average pupils who have one or two brothers or sisters do the best work in the high school. In the main, the poorest work is done by the representatives of the large families. Those who have neither brothers nor sisters are between the extremes in scholarship.

Club membership both in and outside the high school has an important place in the lives of the pupils. The percentage of upper-class men belonging to clubs in the school is greater than the percentage of Freshmen and Sophomores belonging to clubs. The same is true, but to a less degree, of membership in clubs outside the school. The occupational status of the pupils seems to affect club membership to an almost startling degree. Figure 6 shows that 59.1 per cent of the pupils in the commercial and clerical division belong to some organization in the high school. None of the pupils in the common-labor division belong to clubs.

Such factors as temperament, home training, social status, intellectual attainments, and occupation of the father may have some bearing on club membership. The study shows some relation between scholarship and club membership. The number of Rank A pupils belonging to clubs is almost twice as great as the number of Rank D pupils belonging to clubs.

Participation in religious activities naturally improves the moral tone of the pupils. Contacts with many of the best people in the community at religious functions doubtless have a bearing on the social life of the pupils concerned.

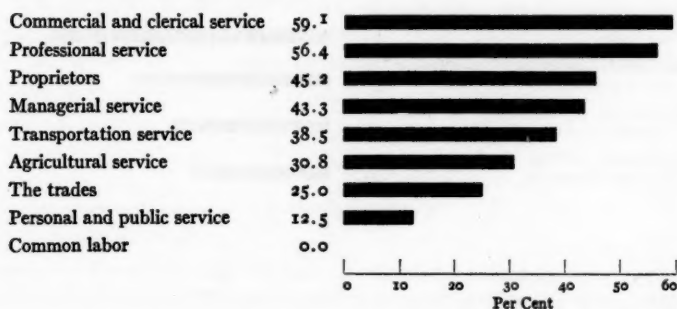


FIG. 6.—Percentage of pupils in each occupational division who belong to clubs or other organizations in the Lyons Township High School.

Ninety-five and four-tenths per cent of the girls and 89.5 per cent of the boys in the high school report that they participate in one or more types of religious activities. The Seniors lead in this type of participation. Pupils who do superior work in the high school help in religious work to a greater extent than do those who do school work below the average of their class. The better-educated and more highly cultured occupational divisions are better represented in religious participation than are the other occupational divisions.

The reports indicate that 48.9 per cent of the high-school pupils are employed at one time or another during the regular school year and that 50.4 per cent are employed during vacations. The employment of Senior boys during previous vacation periods reaches almost 90 per cent. Employment in either instance seems to affect scholar-



ship little or not at all. The common-labor division leads by a negligible margin in the percentage of pupils employed.

The pupils chose the three most enjoyed amusements from a list of ten. Reading is given first place by the girls and third place by the boys. Motoring and radio are first and second, respectively, for the boys. Music is strikingly popular with both sexes. Among the pastimes affording self-expression, dancing ranks first for the girls, and motoring ranks first for the boys.

Motoring seems to be related to scholarship. While 61.1 per cent of the boys name motoring, only 52.6 per cent of those in Rank A name it. Forty-eight per cent of the girls below average in scholarship choose motoring, while only 39 per cent of those above average do so. Reading decreases from 47.4 per cent to 27.6 per cent from Rank A to Rank D in the case of the boys.

Parental occupation seems to affect the selection of amusements to a considerable degree. The choices are so varied, however, that they do not warrant space in this article.

The study includes participation in and the witnessing of eighteen forms of sports. Scholarship seems to have little or no bearing on the type of sports elected by either sex. Pupils of low-grade scholarship do not seem to enjoy watching others participate in sports as much as do the more able pupils. This may have an economic or perhaps social basis. Admission charges are usually demanded of those who witness games. Moreover, pupils usually attend games in friendly groups. Again, a more aggressive spirit may account for both the high-grade scholarship and the keen enjoyment of sports on the part of many pupils.

The occupational divisions whose members belong to clubs to the greatest extent likewise participate most in outdoor sports where personal equipment is required. The less favored occupational divisions seem more content to participate largely in the games organized within the school where equipment is furnished.

Reading as a pastime interests 94 per cent of Rank A girls and 91 per cent of Rank A boys. The percentages are 75 and 70, respectively, for Rank D girls and boys. A careful check of the reading actually done over an extended period reveals an even more pronounced difference. The pupils were grouped as doing much, aver-



age, or little reading as a pastime. The percentages according to scholarship for the boys doing much reading are shown in Figure 7. The situation is similar for the girls.

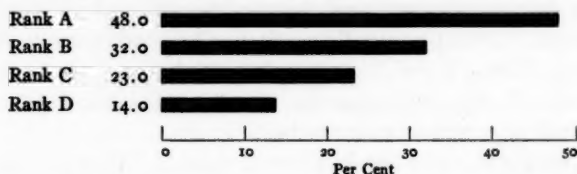


FIG. 7.—Percentage of boys of each scholastic rank in the Lyons Township High School who do much reading as a pastime.

There seems to be a pronounced tendency for those who enjoy reading as a pastime to do better school work than that done by those who do not enjoy reading. One should be careful, however, in drawing inferences in the matter. Abilities established by a large amount of free reading may make scholastic attainments easier; the opposite, however, may prevail in the case of many high-school pupils.

## BUILDING UP THE SECONDARY-SCHOOL LIBRARY THROUGH ANNUAL BOOK DRIVES

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Freeport Senior High School, Freeport, Illinois

How to build up the library is a problem which confronts nearly every secondary school. The method is simple enough if money and space are available, but it is complicated indeed when both are lacking and the only asset is an earnest desire to establish such a department in the school.

Several years ago the Freeport Senior High School undertook to build up a library under the most unpromising conditions. Today the school has a library of ten thousand volumes. The writer believes that similar results are possible in other schools, and it is with the hope of encouraging schools to solve their library problems that the plan used in Freeport is described.

The statement was given circulation that the school intended to establish a modern library. There were a few books scattered in the classrooms. These were assembled in a small room with crude open shelves, and the room became known as the library. A small appropriation from the Board of Education provided a few magazines and a limited number of new books. This beginning stimulated interest in the student body. Material for class discussions and supplementary work could be secured in the school library. The few reference works were pressed into service. Indeed, the reference books had to do double duty, for the number of books of travel, history, and biography was limited.

Children's Book Week was selected as an appropriate time to launch a drive for books. The librarian appeared before the women's club of the city and asked for its support in the undertaking. The editor of the daily newspaper was interviewed, and he generously offered space for whatever the school might desire to print with regard to the book campaign. Prominent business men were ap-

proached, and five agreed to write articles for the newspaper, stressing the value of books. A meeting of the teachers was held, and their co-operation was assured. Finally, an assembly proclaimed to eight hundred pupils the purpose and plan of the "book drive," for the actual work of bringing in the books was to be done by the pupils, who were to benefit from the results.

At the assembly a playlet was presented in which notable heroes and heroines appeared in characteristic rôles, as Bab the gypsy in *The Little Minister*. After the pupils saw the characters presented, the desire to read about them was heightened, and the campaign to secure books for the library was accelerated.

The book drive has increased in effectiveness from year to year. A goal is set each year, and the school has never failed to reach that goal, many times surpassing it. A drive is never allowed to continue more than one week. If the pupils are going to secure books, they can succeed within that time.

It has been found that the Honor Society is the most reliable and efficient organization in the school to manage the drives, and it is with pride that its members proclaim what they have done to help build up the school library. The use of tags has proved effective, one tag being given for each book or for every fifty pounds of paper turned in. Generally the competition among the classes is keen.

Naturally the question arises: What kinds of books are received? All types of books are accepted, but it is always made clear that anything not suitable for the school library will be sold and the money used to buy new books. The library is thus relieved of useless books. The amount received in cash for the old books and paper is considerable, the weight running into tons. Many pupils who can afford it have acquired the habit of giving their textbooks when they have no further use for them. The textbooks thus acquired are used for indigent pupils; some are sold.

The publicity given to the drives inspires many people not reached by personal solicitation to telephone the school saying that they have books which they will give if the school can send for them. For example, two such gifts were a set of the speeches of Lincoln and ten volumes of *The World's Famous Orations*.

The surprises are many. Pupils bring in sets of books that are virtually unused with the remark, "They [the donors] said they didn't have any use for these and that maybe we could use them." Frequently the donor telephones and says, "If these books are useful, I will send them, but I want them used." The greatest surprise was the receipt of a plain white envelope containing one hundred dollars in currency with the simple statement that it was the gift of an unknown friend.

In addition to the books of non-fiction, the school now has a good library of fiction. A Senior often does not care to keep the books he read as a Freshman. Many a Christmas gift therefore ends in the school library, where it is enjoyed by other boys and girls in the school.

There is another important aspect of a book drive—it brings the pupils together in a common cause. The social benefit of such a project is considerable aside from the value to the school. The young people experience a heightened feeling of responsibility and good will. They can truly say, "The library is ours."

The library of the Freeport Senior High School has been built up to no small extent through the co-operative efforts of school and community in annual book drives. The plan makes possible a better library when the funds available for library purposes are inadequate.

## THE USE OF OBJECTIVE TESTS IN TEACHING AS ILLUSTRATED BY GRAMMAR

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University of California

*Introduction.*—Several articles dealing with the value of informal, teacher-made objective tests for teaching purposes have been published. The use of such tests originated in connection with the use of standard tests. Because of the limited number of duplicate forms available for most standard tests, the use of these tests for teaching purposes has not been feasible.

A few textbooks introduce informal tests as an integral part of instruction. Until the time arrives when textbooks follow this practice more universally, the teacher may accomplish the desired ends through tests of her own construction.

This article presents some suggestions relative to the use of objective tests in teaching and reports brief experimental results supporting the values of this practice.

*The need for duplicate forms.*—If it is true that the "flow" of subject matter in any school subject may be broken into a series of units (topics, projects, etc.), it is very desirable that the teacher should accumulate test items based on each unit. Some of these test items might be used conjointly with textual materials and some reserved for testing at the beginning and at the end of each unit and for subsequent examinations of a more extended scope.

As materials for study, objective tests have values which are superior in many respects to those of the average textbook. A few of the more important values are as follows:

1. Objective tests may serve as detailed assignments, guides to the economical and proper use of the textbook.
2. Objective tests may be made to serve as guides to the relative importance of different elements of subject matter.
3. Objective tests may form relatively inexpensive drill materials, since series of items covering basic facts and skills may be

repeated in varying orders in much the same way that the one hundred addition or multiplication facts are handled in teaching.

4. Objective tests may be made to serve an even more important drill function, namely, the proper chronological distribution of practice in learning. Most textbooks and courses of study proceed in the unpsychological fashion of "cleaning up" as they go; that is, they *master* (?) a topic, leave it, and proceed to the next topic or unit, *ad infinitum*. This has been called the "cold-storage" theory of learning. Where it succeeds at all, it is only through wasteful overlearning of materials. The preventive for forgetting is repeated practice. Modern textbooks are coming gradually to the use of cumulative, repetitive drill rather than "bunched" drill and study. Objective tests may be used to bolster up unpsychological textbook organizations by regular review tests. Duplicate forms of such review and drill tests may be given weekly, bi-weekly, or less often; they will thus provide well-distributed practice. Since fifty or more items may be administered in an ordinary class period, the ultimate amount of distributed practice may be considerable without taking time from new instruction. For such purposes, the same items may be repeated in the same or slightly varied statements, or new items may be used each time, depending on the number of legitimate test elements which can be found for the particular topic.

*A basic consideration in using tests in teaching.*—The foregoing discussion is beside the point if objective tests cannot be shown to possess great merit as teaching materials. They need not be superior to ordinary textbook treatments provided they are equally interesting or motivating. The *combined* use of regular textbook materials and objective tests will represent some gain through sheer variety if the two kinds of materials are substantially equally valuable in most respects.

In order to determine the value of tests in teaching apart from measurement proper, the writers carried out a three-track experiment in the teaching of grammar in the high school.

*Some illustrative experimental results.*—A total of 497 pupils were used, distributed as follows: ninth grade, 159; tenth grade, 181; and eleventh grade, 157. These pupils were divided, grade by grade, into three groups. The number of pupils in each group and the

methods pursued were as follows: Method 1, textbook alone, 192 pupils; Method 2, objective tests only, 164 pupils; Method 3, textbook and objective tests combined, 141 pupils.

Because the sections could not be subdivided and regrouped, it was not possible to equalize the three groups very exactly with respect to intelligence. Moreover, no intelligence records were available for the eleventh grade, in which case teachers' ratings were used. In the two lower grades scores on the Terman Group Test of Mental Ability were used. The final grouping of sections was

TABLE I  
RELATIVE STANDING OF THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS IN INTELLIGENCE AND  
KNOWLEDGE OF GRAMMAR

	Number of Pupils	Mean I.Q.	S.D. of I.Q.'s	Mean Score on Grammar Test	S.D. of Scores on Grammar Test
Grade IX:					
1. Textbook method.....	59	100.9	13.4	7.2	5.1
2. Test method.....	50	98.6	12.4	3.6	5.3
3. Combination method.....	50	95.3	8.0	4.0	4.2
Grade X:					
1. Textbook method.....	72	105.7	13.2	11.7	7.3
2. Test method.....	60	94.2	10.7	8.8	7.5
3. Combination method.....	40	104.6	7.3	10.1	6.1
Grade XI:					
1. Textbook method.....	61	*	.....	13.7	3.3
2. Test method.....	45	†	.....	10.3	3.7
3. Combination method.....	51	‡	.....	11.4	4.6

\* Above average.

† Below average.

‡ About average.

planned so as to favor the textbook group somewhat, the combination-method group and the test group standing somewhat lower in ability. As a further check, grammar tests were given on the first day of the experiment to all pupils, the tests for the three grades being different.

Table I shows the initial mean scores (or estimates) for intelligence and for the preliminary grammar tests. The intelligence scores or ratings and the results of the grammar tests show close relative agreement.

The groups were taught for ten weeks by the methods indicated. At the end of this period all groups were tested with objective tests



containing seventy-five items, the tests for the three grades being different. No textbook was used with Method 2, but fifteen different objective tests of twenty-five items each were used for instructional purposes, ten of these tests being used for teaching and five for testing. The pupils taught by Method 3 (combination) were given four or five tests during the ten weeks. No intermediate tests were given to the pupils taught by Method 1 (textbook) although care was taken to review as thoroughly as in the case of the other two types of teaching. An effort was made to keep the actual

TABLE II  
RESULTS OF THE INTERMEDIATE TESTS GIVEN TO THE GROUPS  
TAUGHT BY METHODS 2 AND 3

	Number of Pupils	Mean Score
Grade IX:		
2. Test method.....	50	16.3 ± .2
3. Combination method.....	50	13.4 ± .2
Difference.....		2.9 ± .3
Grade X:		
2. Test method.....	69	17.4 ± .3
3. Combination method.....	40	14.9 ± .3
Difference.....		2.5 ± .4
Grade XI:		
2. Test method.....	45	17.9 ± .3
3. Combination method.....	51	14.3 ± .3
Difference.....		3.6 ± .4

amounts of classroom time the same for all three methods. Records of both home and school study were kept on the basis of the amount of time needed for mastery of the several units into which the work was divided. On the average, the pupils studying by Method 2 (test) used about 40 per cent less time than that used by the pupils following Method 1 (textbook) or Method 3 (combination). The average time used by the pupils taught by Method 3 (combination) was slightly greater than that used by the pupils taught by Method 1.

Table II shows the main results of the intermediate tests employed with the groups taught by Methods 2 and 3. Table III shows the results of the final tests for all three groups.

## SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

1. The test method proved superior to the other two methods in all grades as judged by the final tests. The combination method was second in every case, and the textbook method was last. The differences between the test method and the textbook method are all statistically significant, being at least seven times their probable errors. With one exception, all differences are three or more times their probable errors (Table III).

TABLE III  
RESULTS OF THE FINAL TESTS

	Number of Pupils	Mean Score	Difference	Difference Divided by P.E. of Difference
Grade IX:				
1. Textbook method.....	59	50.8	$7.4 \pm 1.0$ (1 and 2)	7.4
2. Test method.....	50	58.2	$4.7 \pm 1.0$ (2 and 3)	4.7
3. Combination method....	50	53.5	$2.7 \pm 0.9$ (1 and 3)	3.0
Grade X:				
1. Textbook method.....	72	40.1	$9.0 \pm 1.2$ (1 and 2)	7.5
2. Test method.....	69	49.1	$3.7 \pm 1.3$ (2 and 3)	2.8
3. Combination method....	40	45.4	$5.3 \pm 1.2$ (1 and 3)	4.4
Grade XI:				
1. Textbook method.....	61	57.6	$5.7 \pm 0.8$ (1 and 2)	7.1
2. Test method.....	45	63.3	$2.6 \pm 0.8$ (2 and 3)	3.3
3. Combination method....	51	60.7	$3.1 \pm 0.8$ (1 and 3)	3.9

2. The differences are not to be explained on the basis of intelligence since the differences in the final results are opposite in direction to the differences in the intelligence ratings shown in Table I.

3. The time spent in study cannot explain the differences since the test group studied 40 per cent less time (measured in minutes) during the ten weeks of the experiment than did the other two groups.

4. The intermediate tests (Table II) showed the test method consistently superior to the combination method.

5. Novelty of teaching method might explain the findings. It must yet be shown that the results will hold for other school subjects and when several or all school subjects are taught by the test method simultaneously.

6. The apparent superiority of the test method may perhaps be due to the greater definiteness of lesson assignments made possible by this method.

## Educational Writings

### REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

*A description of standardized tests.*—Today only an unusually ambitious and confident writer attempts to cover the whole field of measurement and testing within the limits of a single book. The field has developed to such an extent that most of its various subdivisions are represented by creditable separate treatments of the subject matter involved. At least a dozen usable books which deal with the measurement of educational attainment in the school subjects are available, and an equal number devoted to the measurement of general intelligence may be found. Other more specialized types of measurement are represented as follows: personality traits, Downey's *The Will-Temperament and Its Testing* (1923); moral attitude or character development, Harts-horne and May's *Studies in Deceit* (1928); special ability or aptitude, Hull's *Aptitude Testing* (1928); and non-standardized or new-type tests, Russell's *Classroom Tests* (1926). Space is not available for mentioning related contributions to experimental, statistical, school-survey, social-survey, tabular, and graphic techniques, which have been materially accelerated in their development by the testing movement.

A new book<sup>1</sup> covers a number of the subdivisions of the field of testing as mentioned in the preceding paragraph. Introductory chapters include discussions of the historical development of educational measurements, problems in measuring and reporting achievement, criteria to be used in judging standardized tests, and the interpretation and reporting of scores on standardized tests. The major part of the book is devoted to thirteen chapters which include descriptions and lists of tests in arithmetic, secondary-school mathematics, language, spelling, handwriting, reading, history, civics, geography, music, art, science, foreign language, industrial arts, home economics, commercial subjects, and health education. Other chapters are concerned with general-intelligence tests, special-ability tests, new-type or non-standardized examinations, and the construction of achievement tests.

Most of the twenty-two chapters are followed by fairly extensive bibliographies. Tests in the various school subjects are listed, and in many instances parts of tests are reproduced. However, the authors will be criticized for the omission of certain tests from their lists; in some subjects less than one-half of

<sup>1</sup> Henry Lester Smith and Wendell William Wright, *Tests and Measurements*. Newark, New Jersey: Silver, Burdett & Co., 1928. Pp. vi+540+x. \$3.00.

the available tests are mentioned. While it may have been inadvisable to describe the eight hundred or more tests which are said by the authors to be available, critical readers will insist on more adequate criteria for the inclusion or omission of given tests than the judgment of the two authors. It may be suggested that Kelley made use of the opinions of six nationally known men in measurement in an appraisal of the tests listed in his *Interpretation of Educational Measurements* (1927). However, the authors state that they have attempted to select tests which measure as nearly as possible the generally accepted objectives of teaching in the subjects involved. These objectives are stated at the beginning of each chapter.

It seems that a book which deals with the precise measurement of educational products should typify the principles of exactness discussed. However, on the first three pages a number of the generally accepted principles of citation and documentation are violated. Indirect quotations from other writers are given with no indication of the books or articles on which they are based, and certain citations are given in the text rather than in footnotes. On the first and third pages the initials of S. A. Courtis are given incorrectly. The authors and the publisher have failed to provide the reader with the mechanical aid which could be secured from lists of the sixty-three tables and nineteen figures. The pages of the index are numbered separately from the preceding part of the book. The advantage of such a procedure is not apparent; certainly the plan is unconventional.

A survey of the topics treated in the book and the statements made in the first paragraph of this review indicate that an adequate treatment of the entire field of measurement is hardly possible within the limits of a single book although textbooks which attempt such treatments continue to appear. The chief value of the present book is in the descriptions, reproductions, and lists of standardized tests, in the statements of objectives in the various school subjects, and in the rather extensive bibliographies for additional reading although most of this ground has been covered a number of times within the past few years.

CARTER V. GOOD

MIAMI UNIVERSITY

*Supervisory organizations.*—Supervision is coming into its own. Recent decades have witnessed its liberation from the mesh of administration. New techniques, new objectives, increased personnel, and the growing complexity of public education have developed supervision into an educational third estate. Within memory, supervision was a minor phase of administration; today, "administration of supervision" is a term in good repute.

A recent contribution to the literature of supervision<sup>1</sup> by Professors Ayer and Barr recounts the rise of supervision and then proceeds to answer twelve

<sup>1</sup> Fred C. Ayer and A. S. Barr, *The Organization of Supervision: An Analysis of the Organization and Administration of Supervision in City School Systems*. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1928. Pp. xviii+398.

questions which cover the following ground: Is special supervision essential to a well-organized school system? Is it necessary for all subjects? How many supervisors should a school system employ? What function should special supervision perform? What part should the principal play in supervision? How much time should the principal devote to supervision? What supervisory duties should the principal perform? How may special and building supervision be co-ordinated? What part should the superintendent play in supervision? How much time should the superintendent devote to supervision? What supervising duties should the superintendent perform? Finally, how may the work of the several supervisory and administrative officers of the superintendent's staff best be co-ordinated in the interests of harmony and efficiency? (P. 250)

In answering these questions, the authors present interesting data from both familiar and unpublished sources. Drawn from these data are some conclusions which differ slightly from conventional beliefs: Rating authority should be transferred from supervisors to principals. Although theory places the elementary-school principal at the head of his own building, practice, even in outstanding systems, refutes theory. The principal directs the activities of the supervisor; yet a major responsibility of the supervisor is that of training the principal. Half-time for supervision is probably too great an allowance for principals—a healthy rebuttal to the seemingly general conviction that supervision must increase until administration shall follow clerical duties to oblivion. The statement with regard to teaching by supervisors is as definite as the platform of a major party on farm relief: It is advisable if it is necessary. Teachers in large cities do not receive as much supervisory attention as do those in medium-sized cities. Similarly, superintendents in small and large cities do less supervisory work than do those in medium-sized cities.

After answering their self-imposed questions exhaustively in some two hundred pages describing current practice, the authors present schematically and discuss three systems of supervisory organization: the extrinsic-dualistic, the line-and-staff, and the co-ordinate divisional systems. The authors doubt the propriety of singling out any school system as typical of the dualistic scheme. The Detroit and Seattle systems are analyzed as representative of the second and third types. The supervisory organizations of eight larger cities in various parts of the country are analyzed, the Hamtramck, Michigan, scheme being high in the authors' favor. Seattle furnishes many of the illustrations in the book.

The supervisory problems of the small school system receive attention in a single, rather brief chapter. County organization for supervision is urged. If this type of organization is not possible, a composite system of supervising principals, supervising teachers, and general supervisors is recommended. The work of the supervising teacher is given special attention.

The book is largely concerned with bringing "together in an organized discussion studies of the topic, whether scientific or empirical, which contribute to a better understanding of the organization of supervision" (p. v). The final chapter defines supervision in terms of instructional activities and administra-

tive levels and presents five principles of efficiency in supervision: "(1) centralization of executive responsibility, (2) functional assignment of duties, (3) facility for co-operation, (4) integration of educational outcomes, and (5) flexibility of operation" (p. 350).

The book performs a definite service in giving perspective and some coherence to the generally complicated supervisory situation. It is a factually adequate record of supervision up to 1928.

JOHN L. BRACKEN

SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, CLAYTON, MISSOURI

*Character education.*—The importance of character as the most permanent and most generally pervasive outcome of school experiences has inspired a number of systematic discussions of the subject. One of these affords a very suggestive view of the origin of the problem as it appears at present and of the principles underlying the training of character and offers a definite plan of action.

Chapter ii describes the social changes which have operated to make the life of the adolescent of today quite different from that of his parent at the same age and which have consequently given rise to the need for a new type of training for group life. In chapter iv these changes are used to explain and interpret certain baffling manifestations of adolescent personality; chapters v and vi point out the opportunities afforded by school activities in particular for a deliberate attack on the problem.

The "Objectives of Character Education" as listed at the beginning of chapter ii are as follows:

1. Opportunities to make use of all the qualities that enter into a fully developed character.
2. The awakening and quickening of the moral judgment.
3. Opportunity for the correction of false notions and ideals. This may come through the teacher or other pupils.
4. Appreciation of the importance of right thinking and acting.
5. Conduct situations should be emotionalized so that satisfaction results from noble thinking and acting.
6. A knowledge of the accepted ideals of the better class of people.
7. An appreciation of character in others past and present.
8. A voluntary acceptance of the right ideals.
9. The right habits formed and rationalized so they do not fail in social situations [p. 15].

The author takes the position that character is the main product of education rather than the by-product and that curricular activities afford a greater opportunity for character-training than do extra-curriculum activities. Whether he accepts the view that character is an aspect of the whole individual rather than one of the individual's properties is not clear.

<sup>1</sup> Elvin H. Fishback, *Character Education in the Junior High School*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1928. Pp. xiv+190. \$1.24.



The critical reader will question the statements that "courage and perseverance may be cultivated in a class in mathematics" (p. 67) under certain conditions and that "another trait of character that may be stimulated by the study of science is that of open-mindedness, or the frank facing of facts" (p. 69). Some recent studies, such as those of the Character Education Inquiry, are disclosing what appears to be the specificity of character traits with respect to the situations or types of situation in which they are developed. In formulating the definite plan set forth in chapter xi, the author evidently had in mind the generalization of these traits through the expedient of multiplying and varying examples from literature and real life.

Junior high school faculties will find the book a stimulating basis for a series of meetings.

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN

H. H. RYAN

*Parent-teacher associations.*—Every superintendent or principal who has had direct contact with a parent-teacher association has wrestled at some time with the question: What should parent-teacher associations do? Since more than one million men and women are now members of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, it is well that this question be not only asked but also answered. An answer has been attempted in a recent statistical study<sup>1</sup> of "the activities, the objectives, and the organization of 797 local parent-teacher associations in nine states" (p. v).

The author first attempts to learn what parent-teacher associations do. In chapter ii he classifies into nine groups the activities actually engaged in by the local associations studied. In chapter iii he quotes Peters and Dewey and argues that the school is "an agency with residual functions" (p. 35) and that, "no matter how completely the school performs its duties according to the theory of residual functions, there remains something of a problem of bringing school and out-of-school experiences together" (p. 38). This the parent-teacher association may do.

Chapter iv evaluates activities of parent-teacher associations, cites limitations of their functions, and sets up six specific objectives as follows:

1. Giving members an understanding of the objectives and methods of the school [p. 58].
2. Learning to apply accepted educational objectives and methods to the out-of-school environment [p. 58].
3. Under certain conditions giving school officials opinions as to where the school fails or succeeds [p. 61].
4. Aiding to educate the community in desirable aspects of the school's program [p. 62].
5. Facilitating acquaintance among parents and teachers [p. 63].
6. Raising funds under special conditions [p. 64].

<sup>1</sup> Julian E. Butterworth, *The Parent-Teacher Association and Its Work*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1928. Pp. x+150.



The judgments of 390 superintendents and principals are used to establish the validity of these objectives. Activities which accomplish these objectives answer the question: "What should the association do?"

"Planning Programs and Other Activities," "Problems of Membership and Organization," and "Measuring the Achievements of a Parent-Teacher Association and Stimulating Its Further Development" are the titles of the last three chapters. With the aid of 113 parent-teacher workers, principals, and superintendents, the author has developed a useful score card for the rating of parent-teacher associations.

Excellent tabulations of the data and a carefully selected list of references are found in the Appendix.

Although the conclusions reached seem valid, the data presented are largely of the questionnaire-judgment type and may or may not be truly representative. However, the book is written in very readable style and will challenge the thinking of those who examine it. It will be particularly useful to the principal who needs to evaluate occasionally the activities and achievements of the parent-teacher association in his school.

ERIC OSCAR MAY

TOWNSHIP HIGH SCHOOL, ROBINSON, ILLINOIS

*The work of deans of women.*—It is encouraging that studies of the work of deans of women are becoming more numerous and more scientific. In a recent publication<sup>1</sup> the work of deans of women in teachers' colleges and normal schools has been thoroughly discussed. As the authors state, the purpose of the study was to give answers to the questions of three groups of people: (1) presidents of normal schools and teachers' colleges who want a more exact definition of the functions of a dean of women; (2) prospective deans who want to know the opportunities for positions, the salary to be expected, the type of preparation necessary, and the kind of work expected of them; (3) those who are planning professional courses for deans of women and who want to know what material should be included in these courses.

The study was conducted by the questionnaire method supplemented by personal visits to a few institutions. The disadvantages of the questionnaire type of investigation were overcome by the marked and unusual co-operation of both the presidents and the deans who were questioned. It is highly significant that replies were received from 100 per cent of the presidents to whom questionnaires were sent.

The institutions used as a basis for investigation were those listed in the educational directory for 1927 published by the Bureau of Education. Related facts, such as size of institution, provisions for housing students, and maturity

<sup>1</sup> Sarah M. Sturtevant and Ruth Strang, *A Personnel Study of Deans of Women in Teachers Colleges and Normal Schools*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 319. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928. Pp. 96.

and social and economic condition of students, were studied as they prove significant in the dean's work.

No attempt is made to evaluate the position of the dean within the institution nor to test the efficiency or effectiveness of the methods used by the dean. The study gives, however, very definite information as to the exact duties deans in teachers' colleges and normal schools are now performing, the experience and training of these women, their salaries, and their relation to other departments of the institutions in which they are employed.

The detailed case studies of the actual work of two deans are an interesting departure and make the accumulated data more concrete.

The Appendix includes material useful and suggestive to all who are interested in a study of the work of a dean of women whether she be in a college, normal school, or high school.

A statement of the thought-provoking problems for further investigation which have grown out of this study will be of special interest to those who are formulating material for professional courses for deans.

The study is clear, concise, concrete, and scientific. It fulfils the purpose of the authors admirably and satisfactorily.

ELSIE M. SMITHIES

*A study of the high school.*—A general description of secondary education bearing especially on the development, objectives, and curriculum offerings of the American secondary school appears in a book entitled *The High School*.<sup>1</sup> This book gives general information about our secondary schools and will be especially useful to the beginning or prospective high-school teacher who wishes to know something about the organization of materials of instruction and of administration. "Throughout the book the treatment is semi-historical" (p. 16).

One chapter deals with the development of secondary education, one with comparative education, one with the junior high school and the junior college, and two with objectives of secondary education. Seven chapters, or nearly one-half of the book, describe the development of the curriculum and the materials of instruction in English, foreign languages, mathematics, the social studies, the biological and physical sciences, and the practical and fine arts. The last five chapters are devoted, respectively, to extra-curriculum activities, functions of the high school, guidance, the teacher's relation to the administration, and the challenge of the American high school. With the exception of a treatment of mental and physical characteristics of adolescents, the book contains the topics which most commonly appear in textbooks under the title "Principles of Secondary Education."

This survey of secondary education contains no overbalanced bibliography, but references in the body of the book to sources of information, footnote cita-

<sup>1</sup> Walter S. Monroe and Oscar F. Weber, *The High School*. Garden City, New York: Doubleday, Doran & Co., Inc., 1928. Pp. viii+512. \$2.50.

tions, and specific references in the learning exercises provide the student with material for further study.

The treatment of the organization of the curriculums and the description of instructional materials are not radical departures from traditional treatments; "the writers maintain a relatively conservative attitude toward the present agitation for the reconstruction of the curriculum" (p. 224).

The nomenclature used to describe general and specific objectives is a departure from the customary method of designating the more remote and the immediate aims of education. The term "conduct objectives" is used to designate the future desired behavior or outcomes of learning, and the term "control objectives" is used to designate the learning activities that should function as controls of the desired conduct. The analysis made in the two chapters on objectives is clear and effective.

The reader will probably agree with the authors that "the principal merit of this book is to be found in the careful selection of information about our secondary schools and in the organization of material" (p. viii).

THOMAS M. DEAM

JOLIET TOWNSHIP HIGH SCHOOL AND JUNIOR COLLEGE  
JOLIET, ILLINOIS

*The social implications of the educative process.*—That the educative process involves many social factors and implications which must be provided for in teaching procedures is a commonplace statement. There is, however, little agreement as to the techniques that should be used to provide for the social aspects. In this connection it is interesting to note that there is a growing number of educators who are seeking to derive the necessary techniques from sociology. Furthermore, these workers are developing a new body of knowledge which they call "educational sociology." The principles of this new field of study have been ably set forth in a recent book.<sup>1</sup> The author gives a social interpretation of education and at the same time a lucid statement of the principles on which educational sociology must be based.

The book views education with reference to its needs and purposes and seeks to develop techniques which provide for these needs and purposes. To this end, the author first considers the sociological foundations of education. He holds that every phase of the school system has a sociological aspect as well as a psychological aspect and that the school is responsible for both. It follows, therefore, that the group as well as the individual must often be used as the unit of approach. Social groups and institutions are therefore emphasized as both means and ends of education.

The second part of the book considers the application of the principles of educational sociology to specific school problems. Not only are the social aspects of various school situations indicated, but the changes necessary for the better

<sup>1</sup> Walter Robinson Smith, *Principles of Educational Sociology*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1928. Pp. xviii+774. \$3.00.

preparation of the pupil for social participation are set forth. The author combines theory and fact and constantly deals with the problems of the practical worker.

The importance of the book lies in the fact that it shows clearly the limitations of educational psychology with its emphasis on the individual. Some writers hold that the laws and facts concerning the social aspects of education can be derived from social psychology. Whether the necessary procedures are derived from sociology or from social psychology is not important. It is, however, important that the social point of view be reflected in the treatment of school problems. In this respect the book constitutes an undoubted contribution.

ALBERT GRANT

VOCATION BUREAU, CINCINNATI PUBLIC SCHOOLS

*Telling the laymen about our new schools.*—In a country where schools and school administrators derive their power and support from the consent of the people, it is an indispensable prerequisite for healthy growth that the laymen of the entire country be enlightened concerning the progressive movements in the important but difficult task of educating the youth. Furthermore, "with thousands of teachers and hundreds of thousands of parents all over the country willing and anxious to start or support movements for schools that will give their children a better chance in the world, there should be, to lend their interest direction and force, some sort of popular guide to what is going on in progressive American education" (p. ix). *Better Schools*<sup>1</sup> is designed to fill such a need. It attempts to describe in a non-technical form some of the more outstanding and successful experiments "in a way that will help one to understand and profit by America's new school ways" (p. ix).

The material is organized into three major divisions. The first discusses the importance of good schools for the race and for the child, the things the schools must do that racial advance may be upward rather than downward, the ways in which the progressive schools in America are started and organized, and the ways in which the leaders in public-school administration have fought to secure better school conditions. The second division centers around the more specific researches in building a curriculum worthy of the name "progressive curriculum." The third division describes the best ways of teaching that have thus far been conceived and ends with an inspiring discussion of the goal toward which the "new education" is moving.

The outstanding advances in public education are given their place and are treated adequately. The style is simple but vigorous and interesting. The book deserves to be read widely and will add not a little to the progress of American public education by the indirect-direct method of informing the layman about our better schools.

R. H. OJEMANN

<sup>1</sup> Carleton Washburne and Myron M. Stearns, *Better Schools: A Survey of Progressive Education in American Public Schools*. New York: John Day Co., 1928. Pp. xvi+342. \$2.50.

*Suggestions for the short speech.*—The listening public is likely to agree that the average short speech could be improved. The same public might well applaud the would-be speaker who makes a study of a book by James Thompson Baker entitled *The Short Speech*.<sup>1</sup> The performance of pupils in the classroom, the talks given by lodge and club members, and the varied efforts made by men or women who are called on in business to address audiences would undoubtedly display improvement if this book were properly absorbed.

It is an especially practical field that is covered by the book. Attention is centered on speeches which the average person may be called on to make. There are announcements to be made, speakers to be presented to audiences, welcomes to be extended to visiting delegations, gifts to be accepted with a minimum of embarrassment, and nominating speeches and after-dinner remarks to be made. Since life presents such opportunities to many men and women, a book which offers some theory, much direct advice, and limited illustrative material should serve a purpose.

*The Short Speech* has suggestions for the pupil, the teacher, the salesman, the minister, the lodge man, the employer, and the employed—to catalogue but a few—and all alike will find the outlines and the general arrangement of the material helpful. One can well imagine the pupil in the classroom pleased with the simple directness with which the suggestions are made or the busy man delighted with the outlines that introduce the chapters. These outlines are an outstanding feature of the book. They will appeal to the reader both as time-savers and as helps toward that invaluable ability—the power to outline a topic.

The author has touched the unusual in his chapters entitled "Speaking to Children," "Talking to Old Folks," and "Speaking to College Students." His analysis of the characteristics of speakers appreciated by various audiences is good. His suggestions should prove helpful both to the beginner and to the seasoned speaker.

BROADWAY HIGH SCHOOL, SEATTLE, WASHINGTON

REED FULTON

*A syllabus for teachers of junior high school mathematics.*—A recent textbook<sup>2</sup> attempts to organize a course for teacher-training classes in junior high school mathematics. It is based on a study to develop a general technique for the scientific construction of professional content courses for the training of teachers, and it employs the field of junior high school mathematics as a specific problem to exemplify the technique. The professional content course, as interpreted by the author, consists of subject matter which has been carefully selected with reference to its propaedeutic and professional values as well as to its co-ordinating functions and organized into convenient units of instruction.

<sup>1</sup> James Thompson Baker, *The Short Speech: A Handbook on the Various Types*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1928. Pp. xviii+316. \$2.50.

<sup>2</sup> William Leonard Schaaf, *A Course for Teachers of Junior High School Mathematics*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 313. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928. Pp. vi+160.

In Part I (pp. 9-20) the problem is defined in terms of its logical elements; the method of procedure in the construction of the syllabus is explained; and the findings are listed as topics for the unitary organization of the subject matter. Part II (pp. 21-149) is a syllabus consisting of twenty-one units for Grades VII, VIII, and IX. In the outline for each unit the following principles are treated: (1) teacher's knowledge, (2) appreciation background, (3) educational values, (4) teaching objectives, (5) psychological considerations, and (6) teaching procedures.

The outstanding features of the book are (1) the discussion of such professional matters as pupil activities, acquisition of the fundamental mathematical concepts and processes, analysis of outcomes in terms of the aims and objectives of the mathematical units, art of questioning, home assignment, habit formation, supervised study, drills, specimen tests, supplementary topics, individual differences and remedial treatment, transfer of training, and psychological phases of arithmetic and algebra and (2) an extensive bibliography (pp. 150-60) of carefully selected references for each of the twenty-one units of the course and for the general basic principles considered in the study.

The book is an excellent treatment of the problem of organization of the subject matter of mathematics into sound units of instruction and of the problem of teacher-training. Although it is a provisional syllabus for teacher-training classes, it is a valuable guide for investigators in the field of curriculum construction and for teachers of mathematics in junior and senior high schools. For the latter it will provide valuable and desirable information and guiding principles both in the presentation of subject matter and in classroom procedures.

J. S. GEORGES

*Health education.*—The modern public-health movement aims to protect the community against itself by safeguarding the water and food supplies, by properly disposing of sewage, by preventing pollution of the air with smoke and dust, and by isolating those with communicable diseases. It also aims to educate the individual in the essentials of health. No community is more healthy than the combined health of those who compose it.

Health-teaching is a part of primary education, but at this level it can concern itself only with the formation of good health habits. Desire for cleanliness, a taste for good food, proper habits of regular exercise, rest, and sleep may be inculcated in the young child without attempting to develop a realization of what health means. In the high school, however, it is possible to develop a knowledge of what health means to the individual and to the community.

*Health Essentials*<sup>1</sup> is a textbook for the teaching of health. The book not only points out the road to healthful living for the high-school pupil but considers those matters which affect the well-being of the community. The major part of the book deals with personal hygiene. Little space is devoted to anatomy

<sup>1</sup> J. Mace Andress, A. K. Aldinger, and I. H. Goldberger, *Health Essentials*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1928. Pp. viii+482. \$1.72.



and physiology, probably just enough to give an understanding of the basis of modern hygienic methods.

The book is written in simple language, and the titles of the sections are such as to appeal to the reader and cause him to enter upon the study of the text with interest. In all cases positive health is stressed. In order to prepare the pupil for future civic life, material on home and community hygiene is included. The book will be found a good textbook for health education in the high school.

WILLIAM I. FISHBEIN, M.D.

*A Latin textbook for the junior high school.*—A new book<sup>1</sup> for use in junior high schools represents a pioneer effort in textbook construction in Latin. In the words of the authors, the principal objectives are "to teach Latin in its relation to English; to accustom the child from the very beginning to connected reading as an integral part of his daily work; to give him, by means of stories in Latin and brief simple readings in English, a sympathetic understanding of the Romans" (p. v).

An analysis of a single typical lesson will serve to show the technique in the realization of these objectives. Lesson XXI deals with the dative case, singular—the indirect object. At the top of the first page is a picture illustrating the Roman manner of dress. The lesson begins with a short story, nine lines in length, involving conversation about the toga. This is followed by a simple discussion of the indirect object, with English examples. The form of the dative singular with illustrations in Latin is then presented. The position of the dative with reference to the accusative is next discussed. The exercises require the identification of datives and accusatives used in previous lessons and the translation of three English sentences into Latin. The remainder of the lesson consists of about a page of English discussion of Latin in our language today and Roman private life.

The book contains frequent and valuable illustrations. The type is large and easy to read. In addition to the usual summary of rules and paradigms, the Appendix includes study helps for the pupil and suggestions for Latin-club programs, including games and songs. Lesson vocabularies do not appear until near the end of the book. There is a minimum number of paradigms in the lessons.

In the grading of their Latin material, the authors have been successful. Their clear understanding of the ability of pupils at the junior high school level is especially apparent. In this respect they have furnished an example which the writers of first-year books generally will do well to follow. The syntax is simple in treatment and development. It grows naturally out of need and is not taught as an end in itself.

To the teacher of the reading method in its purest form, this book offers

<sup>1</sup> Claire C. Thursby and Gretchen Denke Kyne, *Living Latin for the Junior High School*, Book One. New York: Macmillan Co., 1928. Pp. xxii+482.



little of value. The fifteen hundred lines of simple Latin would be highly acceptable without the accompanying syntax and the discussion of Roman life, which is easily accessible today in altogether attractive and readable books devoted to that subject.

For those who are interested in elementary Latin-teaching the book affords much in the way of well-graded Latin, a simple and clear presentation of the minimum essentials of syntax, and a modern point of view with reference to connected reading.

MARJORIE J. FAY

### CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

#### GENERAL EDUCATIONAL METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY, AND PRACTICE

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- The Classics: Their History and Present Status in Education*. A symposium of essays. Edited by Felix M. Kirsch. Milwaukee, Wisconsin: Bruce Publishing Co., 1928. Pp. x+280. \$3.00.
- DORRIS, ANNA VERONA. *Visual Instruction in the Public Schools*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1928. Pp. x+482. \$2.64.
- HOLLEY, CHARLES ELMER. *Modern Principles and the Elementary Teacher's Technique*. New York: Century Co., 1928. Pp. x+432. \$2.00.
- MCCALL, WILLIAM A., and BIXLER, HAROLD H. *How To Classify Pupils*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1928. Pp. 84.
- MACCLINTOCK, PORTER LANDER. *Literature in the Elementary School*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1928 (revised). Pp. xii+332. \$1.85.
- OPDYCKE, JOHN B. *In the Service of Youth: Chapters on Certain Phases of the Teaching of English in Junior and Senior High Schools*. New York: Isaac Pitman & Sons. Pp. xii+404. \$3.50.
- RUGG, HAROLD, and SHUMAKER, ANN. *The Child-centered School: An Appraisal of the New Education*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1928. Pp. xiv+360.
- SHANNON, JOHN RAYMOND. *Personal and Social Traits Requisite for High Grade Teaching in Secondary Schools*. Terre Haute, Indiana: State Normal Press, 1928. Pp. 112.

#### BOOKS PRIMARILY FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

- ARNOLD, JOSEPH IRVIN. *Problems in American Life*. Evanston, Illinois: Row, Peterson & Co., 1928. Pp. 618+xxxvi.
- BOWMAN, ISALAH. *The New World: Problems in Political Geography*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1928 (revised). Pp. vi+804. \$4.80.

- BROWN, ZAIDEE. *The Library Key: An Aid in Using Books and Libraries*. New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1928. Pp. vi+84. \$0.70.
- COPELAND, EDWIN BINGHAM. *Natural Conduct: Principles of Practical Ethics*. Stanford University, California: Stanford University Press, 1928. Pp. viii+262. \$3.50.
- ENTWISTLE, A. R. *The Study of Poetry: A Literary Supplement*. New York: Thomas Nelson & Sons, 1928. Pp. 288.
- FORESMAN, ROBERT. *Higher Book of Songs*. Chicago: American Book Co., 1928. Pp. 400. \$1.52.
- MONRO, K. M., and TAINTOR, S. A. *Corrective Exercises in English*. New York: Globe Book Co., 1928. Pp. vi+186. \$0.75.
- MULLEN, SARAH McLEAN, and LANZ, MURIEL SIMPSON. *Playing the Game: Stories of Sports and Sportsmanship*. New York: Century Co., 1928. Pp. xviii+256. \$1.12.
- The Pageant of America: Volume VII: *In Defense of Liberty* by William Wood and Ralph Henry Gabriel (pp. 370). Volume IX: *Makers of a New Nation* by John Spencer Bassett (pp. 344). Volume X: *American Idealism* by Luther A. Weigle (pp. 356). New Haven, Connecticut: Yale University Press, 1928.
- Readings in American Citizenship*. Compiled by John T. Greenan. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1928. Pp. xvi+436. \$1.60.

PUBLICATIONS OF THE UNITED STATES BUREAU OF EDUCATION  
AND OTHER MATERIAL IN PAMPHLET FORM

- Directory of Psychiatric Clinics for Children in the United States*. New York: Commonwealth Fund, 1928. Pp. vi+182. \$0.75.
- Recent issues of the Bureau of Education:  
Bulletin No. 14, 1928—*Land-Grant Colleges and Universities, Year Ended June 30, 1927* by Walter J. Greenleaf.
- Twenty-eighth Annual Report of the Director of Education*. Manila, Philippine Islands: Bureau of Education, 1928. Pp. 222.

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- HOLLINGWORTH, LETA S. *The Psychology of the Adolescent*. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1928. Pp. xiv+260. \$2.00.

